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Educational News and Editorial Comment

SCHOOLS AND CITY POLITICS

One can hardly fail to be impressed by the fact that in a number of the cities of the United States there is going on at the present time a bitter controversy between school officers and the officials in charge of general municipal affairs. There must be some underlying reason why there is this unusual exhibition of determination on the part of politicians to take control of the schools. This underlying reason can probably be found in the financial difficulties which have arisen as a result of the expansion in recent years of the school program and the demand for higher salaries and enlarged equipment of

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school buildings. Cities find themselves unable to carry on all of the improvements which are demanded in a modern municipality without raising the tax levy to a point where it will cripple industry and destroy the prosperity of the city. In most states the taxing system is of the most antiquated type, distributing the responsibility for the maintenance of public utilities unjustly and uneconomically. The result is that schools which have been forging ahead in their provision for the education of children have come to be a burden almost intolerable under present taxing systems. City hall officers find that they cannot provide the city with paving and sewers and at the same time meet the demands of the school people. Teachers have organized themselves as political forces and are demanding increases in salary, but the granting of these demands in most municipalities would mean the curtailment of other expenditures which are equally urgent and which are in some cases more readily understood by the managers of the business corporations which depend upon highways for transportation and upon proper policing for the protection of their property.

THE CONTROVERSY IN NEW YORK CITY

Two or three examples of the type of controversy now going on will show what the condition is in many cities other than those selected as examples. The superintendent of schools in the city of New York has found it necessary to prepare a special report to the board of education, setting forth the dispute which has been going on for some time between himself and the mayor of the city. This dispute arises out of the fact that the city officials of New York diverted $2,321,000 of state school funds, which amount is held by the school officials to belong properly to the schools for the payment of their current expenses. The city officials hold that this amount of money can legitimately be taken for general city purposes and they are unwilling to listen to the appeals made by the board of educa-

tion and to the decisions rendered by the commissioner of education of the state of New York. The ruling of the state commissioner is unequivocally in favor of the contention of the board of education. He finds that the funds in question belong to the school board and to that board alone and that it is improper and illegal for the city officers to take this amount of money away from the board of education.

In the meantime the mayor holds that he has a right to examine the accounts of the board of education and officially to pass on their validity. He sent his representatives to audit the books of the board of education. These representatives were refused admission by the superintendent so long as they attempted to deal with the books of the board as auditors in authority over the doings of the board. By action of the board of education the same auditors were invited as citizens to make the fullest inspection of the books of the board.

Bills approved by the board of education have in the interval been held up because of this disagreement with regard to authority and with regard to available funds. The newspapers and citizens are very much confused with regard to the issues that are thus raised. It appears, however, as pointed out in the introductory paragraph of this note, that the fundamental issue at hand is that of securing funds for the various activities of the city. Evidently the mayor is unwilling to become responsible for an increase in tax levy. He feels the schools to be an excessive burden and he has taken these drastic steps in the effort to secure funds which the board of education believes itself rightfully to possess.

THE CONTROVERSY IN CHICAGO

The second example of political interference comes from Chicago. The reelection of Mayor Thompson brought to a definite issue the matter of the legality of the election of the new superintendent, Mr. Chadsey. As a preelection issue the mayor had definitely promised the removal of Mr. Chadsey

from office because, as he alleged, the present board of education has no authority to appoint a superintendent. The procedure adopted by the city hall in making a definite issue of this case was to refuse payment of Mr. Chadsey's salary. This brought out the fact that the city hall had been refusing for some time past to pay the salaries of the business manager and the attorney of the board of education.

Here again the issue is not altogether clear as stated in the papers, but it is perfectly clear to anyone who has observed the operations of the Chicago school system for some years past that at bottom the controversy is with regard to financial matters. The teachers are pressing very properly for an increase in salary. They have been for years organized for the purpose of enforcing their rights. The board of education has been in acute difficulty for some years past because of a steadily increasing deficit in its financial operations. The salary being paid to the new superintendent has been made a public issue because it is stated that the school board is not able to pay its routine expenses.

In the meantime the city hall is unwilling to shoulder the responsibility for an increase in the tax rate and is seeking by every possible device to get hold of the funds of the school system. The more it can blind the people with regard to the issues that are at hand by raising personal issues and by carrying on a dispute with regard to the legality of the board of education, the more it can avoid the necessity of discussing a deficit which is absolutely inevitable.

The board appointed by the present mayor which was ousted by the decision of the Supreme Court cannot evade responsibility for the large deficit that is now at hand, and yet the supporters of the present mayor are among the first to point out the financial difficulties now in existence as evidence of incompetency and inability on the part of their opponents.

The controversy which has been going on for years in the city of Chicago will never be cured until the funds available for the conduct of this crowded school system are increased. The high schools are overflowing. The elementary schools are organized with huge classes. The buildings are many of them in need of immediate attention, and the central office is shamefully understaffed. The root of this problem is financial as it is in New York City.

THE CONTROVERSY IN ST. LOUIS

The third municipality which exhibits political unrest in connection with its schools is the city of St. Louis. Here again the issue is somewhat obscured by the circumstances to which attention has been drawn in the newspapers, but again at bottom the difficulty has grown out of the necessity of spending great sums of money on increases in teachers' salaries and on new buildings. This survey brought out the fact that the department of finance and the department of instruction were different in spirit and organization. For a long time St. Louis was able to support its schools and put up its new school buildings out of current income. A few years ago a survey was carried on as a preliminary to a request for a bond issue of three million dollars for new buildings. The bonds were voted, and very shortly thereafter the board gave generous increases to the teachers so that their salaries were brought to a level comparable to that of salaries in other cities.

In the meantime a new superintendent came into office, and the board of education, now made up in part of members who had not been thoroughly trained in the methods of administration that have been adopted by the department of instruction, assumed that they had rights of a political sort which are forbidden by the school charter of the city of St. Louis. No member of a school board can interfere with the charter rights of the superintendent in the nomination of teachers and in other educational functions. The board, which

had gradually taken on a membership of seven men who were disposed to interfere with the rights of the superintendent, found occasion to interfere with petty financial matters and with the nominations of teachers and to cover up their disappointment in not succeeding by raising other issues which could be publicly aired to the disadvantage, as they supposed, of the superintendent.

Superintendent Withers very wisely made public issue of the matter before election and frankly told the city of the difficulties which he had had with these politically minded members. There were denials on the part of these members which, however, were refuted by documentary evidence in the hands of the superintendent. Fortunately, three of the obstructionists were removed by the election, and in their place substantial citizens were introduced into the board with the probability that the particular type of difficulty which the superintendent has been encountering for the past year will not reappear. There is, however, very grave need of united public sentiment in that city because there is an urgent demand for new buildings and for the enlargement of school facilities.

ANNOUNCEMENT FOR THE FEDERAL BOARD FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The Federal Board for Vocational Education asks the co-operation of teachers and school officers in bringing information to disabled soldiers about the opportunities which the government is prepared to offer them for training which will prepare them to enter trades. The following paragraphs from a letter addressed to this journal indicate the attitude of this board:

> The great difficulty encountered by the Government in reeducating disabled soldiers and sailors is to get information of the opportunity to them There is an astonishing number of these men out in civil life badly handicapped by their injuries, but endeavoring, nevertheless, to work. It is most

amazing the ignorance of the average man and woman about what the government stands ready to do and is doing for these men.

This Board is endeavoring to spread this information as widely as possible in the hope of alleviating the miserable condition of some of these disabled soldiers, and I am asking you if you will not print the enclosed, or as much as you can find space for, in any way which seems to you likely to attract attention. It is a little piece of patriotic service whose object is most laudable.

INFORMING THE BOARD OF EDUCATION

Many school superintendents fail to recognize the fact that members of a board of education do not understand the details of school operations. They do not know very much about the routine duties of the superintendent and they do not understand what is being done by supervisors whom they appoint to direct the work of the schools. If the superintendent depends upon the annual report to inform his board as well as the citizens of the town with regard to his doings, he usually finds that the statement which he can incorporate into this report is so condensed that it gives no adequate account of the duties which he performs from day to day. It is possible, because of this lack of understanding of school operations, for misconceptions to arise with regard to the duties of the superintendent and with regard to the plans on which he is at work.

The superintendent of Alton, Illinois, has adopted a method for overcoming all of these difficulties which is worthy of imitation on a large scale. Superintendent Reavis has not undertaken to report the doings of his schools in any expensive fashion, but he has prepared a list of the activities which he has been pursuing during the year and has had this material mimeographed and put into the hands of his board of education. It is quite impossible to quote in full the thirty-one items which he enumerates showing in some detail the activities which have been carried on in the schools of Alton during the past year. Two or three of these items quoted in full will serve to exhibit the spirit of the whole document:

THE WORK OF THE PRIMARY SUPERVISOR.

a. System of reading changed.
b. Emphasis on content reading, followed by phonetic work, in lower grades.
c. Encouragement of dramatization and silent reading.
d. Sand-table demonstration, cardboard construction, paper-cutting, standing pictures, and illustrations, encouraged as projects.

THE WORK OF THE MUSIC SUPERVISOR.

a. A fine plan of developing an appreciation of good music worked out and put in practice.
b. Installation of victrola in each school, with cabinets of records sent from school to school at regular intervals.

ADOPTION OF PLAN FOR SUPPLEMENTARY READING.

a. Eight sets of standard books purchased for each grade.
b. Books changed in schools every five weeks.

A PROGRAM FOR SUPPLYING REFERENCE BOOKS.

a. Lists of approved reference books compiled and sent to each principal.
b. Patrons' associations urged to supply funds for purchase of these books.

REORGANIZATION OF THE ATTENDANCE DEPARTMENT.

a. Adoption of new record forms.
b. Avoiding duplication with the Hygiene Department.
c. Emphasis upon strict enforcement of the law, in cases of violators.
d. Emphasis upon the education of parents to appreciate the importance of regularity of attendance.

SYNOPTIC OUTLINE OF THE WHOLE COURSE OF STUDY.

a. Prepared in mimeograph form.
b. Placed in the hands of every teacher.
c. Contains suggestions for teaching the different subjects.

NEW COURSE OF STUDY IN HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.

a. Emphasizing home industries.
b. Emphasizing local history, in the lower grades.
c. Stressing Americanism and citizenship.
d. Ending with a study of the Great War.

From the same school system comes an example of foresight in planning for the policies of coming years. A news-note printed in an earlier number of this journal called attention to the importance of planning for school development years in

advance. Superintendent Reavis has outlined in mimeographed form for the study of his board of education all of the building changes necessary for a period of five years. His introductory paragraph may be quoted as exhibiting the spirit of the detailed report which is too local in its character to be of general interest:

In every undertaking, great or small, success is greatly enhanced by the consciousness of definite objectives and carefully prepared plans. The administration of a system of schools is no exception to this rule. If we are to make progress next year, we must outline our goals now and begin to work for their realization at once; and if we are to meet efficiently and opportunely the educational demands of the future, we must outline our objectives for the future and begin to consider ways and means of attaining them.

The following objectives, proposed in accordance with your request for a working program for the next five years, are based upon the unmet needs of the Alton public schools. There is nothing experimental about any of them. Similar needs have already been realized in scores of cities known for their excellent schools. If the schools of Alton are to offer opportunities to the children commensurate with the increasing demands of modern life and with the material growth and prosperity of our city, it is imperative that the following program be realized as rapidly as possible.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

The preliminary announcement of the summer meeting of the National Education Association has just come from the secretary of the Association. It is as follows:

The Milwaukee Program

The presence of our War President, of prominent educational representatives from England and France, and the part taken by laymen representing labor, manufacturing, commercial, and agricultural interests are among the attractions of the program of the next annual convention of the National Education Association, to be held at Milwaukee, June 29 to July 5. According to definite arrangements already made by the president, Dr. George D. Strayer, four afternoons, those of Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday, will be devoted entirely to department meetings. In order to reduce the number of meetings held on any one afternoon, President Strayer has requested department chairmen to combine their programs with those of

other closely allied departments. A summary of the general program, as so far announced, is as follows:

Monday Evening. The session will open with the customary addresses of welcome and response, and the president's address, which will point the educators of the country to their opportunities to do forward-looking, constructive work.

Tuesday Forenoon. At this session, the nation's laymen will be heard in a program in which will appear the most prominent national leaders representing labor, manufacturing, commercial, and agricultural interests.

Tuesday Evening. Rural education, elementary education, secondary education, higher education, and physical education will be represented in a comprehensive program whose theme is the organization of American education for the development of democracy in the United States and the world.

Wednesday Morning. A working session of the Association will be held. Representatives of each of the important committees of the Association, of the Commission, and the Field Secretary will appear, give fundamental facts and discussions, and make necessary recommendations. The entire session will be devoted to mapping out definitely the important work directly before the Association.

Wednesday Evening. Distinguished educational representatives from England and France will bring stirring messages from overseas.

Thursday Morning. The classroom teachers of the United States will have a real inning at the general session. Rural teachers, kindergarten teachers, elementary teachers, high-school teachers, and college teachers will unite in an all-teacher program to discuss the teacher's contribution in a democratic society.

Thursday Evening. It is hoped that the President of the United States will give the teachers of America an inspiring message.

Friday Morning. This session will be devoted entirely to the business meeting.

Friday Afternoon. A general program will be given by the representatives of the nation's greatest welfare agencies cooperating with the public schools.

The following Committee on Resolutions has been appointed:

Fred N. Hunter, Superintendent City Schools, Oakland, Calif., Chairman.

Carlton B. Gibson, Superintendent of Schools, Savannah, Ga.

Mary D. Bradford, Superintendent of Schools, Kenosha, Wis.

May Trumper, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Helena, Mont.

A. E. Winship, Editor *School Journal*, 6 Beacon Street, Boston, Mass.
R. J. Condon, Superintendent of Schools, Cincinnati, Ohio.
Olive Jones, Principal Public School No. 120, New York City.

This meeting of the Association will be one of importance in the life of the organization because it is proposed to consider in full a report which has been presented on several occasions looking toward the reorganization of the membership and to its modes of expressing its opinions. Whether there shall be a small representative meeting made up of delegates from different sections of the country or a general meeting of the type which has always been held in the past is likely to be determined in Milwaukee. The issue was presented at Pittsburgh, but was not voted upon because of the distractions which that meeting confronted on account of the war. Furthermore, this meeting will be asked to consider the general policy of the federal organization which was projected at the Pittsburgh meeting and presented to Congress in the Smith-Towner bill.

It is to be hoped that the representation at this summer meeting will be broad enough to permit a satisfactory expression of general opinion on these matters. It will be nothing short of a calamity if the meeting is largely made up of members from the city of Milwaukee and its immediate vicinity. The grave danger which has menaced the National Education Association for the past few years is that it will be controlled by a group of politically minded people who are not competent to represent the country at large. It is to be hoped that President Strayer and those of his type who are carrying forward the organization of the Association may find ways of bringing to clear expression the broader views of the school people of this country. No organization of the National Education Association which is subject to the criticism that it has been dictated by a coterie of politicians will contribute to the life and future success of the organization.

TULSA PUBLIC SCHOOLS

The school system of Tulsa is described in great detail in an issue of the publication of the Chamber of Commerce of that city which devotes 50 pages to pictures and descriptive matter telling the citizens of Tulsa and anyone else who may be interested about the activities of the school system. The school buildings are presented in illustrations, and all of the different activities of the pupils and teachers are described and illustrated.

Such a description of a school system will do much to give citizens an insight into the value of the equipment for which they have paid and which their children are enjoying. It is especially important that the older members of the community, many of whom have not had an opportunity to experience in person the types of work done in the laboratories and manual-training shops, become acquainted with the scope of education undertaken in a modern school system.

PRACTICE SCHOOLS IN THE COMMUNITY

Cedar Falls had an acute attack this spring of the criticism of practice schools connected with the normal school. The issue has been up before in Iowa and can be briefly stated by pointing out that, like many other towns, Cedar Falls objects to having its children made use of as practice material for the normal-school students who are to be distributed throughout the state as teachers after they have acquired the art of teaching in the local schools. The difficulty in Cedar Falls is especially acute because the normal school is very large and the town is very small. Some time ago an injunction was secured by some discontented citizens against the use of their schools. The form in which the controversy came up this spring was that of the local election in which the various candidates were asked to commit themselves definitely on one side or the other. The campaign was waged with much pamphleteering and discussion in public and private. It was

pointed out to the citizens that the town would hardly exist if it were not for the normal school. Certainly the water system and the trolley system could not survive if it were not for the patronage of the students and the faculty. It was pointed out that it is the belief of normal-school teachers that children are better trained in practice schools than in schools that are not under the supervision of normal-school faculties and critic teachers. On the other hand, it was urged that the state of Iowa ought not to depend upon a single town, and it was seriously questioned by many of the parents whether the instruction given to their children was of the highest grade. The election was won by those who were opposed to the use of the schools for practice teaching.

This issue is one which will have to be faced in a good many different quarters, and it behooves students of education to give very serious consideration to the problem of practice teaching. The problem has been solved in England by a device to which we might profitably give attention. The training colleges for teachers in England are under the control of the board of education in London. So are all of the schools which receive grants of money from the state. It is a very simple matter under these conditions for the board of education in London to make a ruling, as it has, to the effect that every public school in England is potentially a practice school for the training colleges. The training colleges then arrange with the schools nearest at hand and best suited to their purposes such exercises as are required for the training of their students. This use of the schools is distributed as widely as it is possible to distribute it. As contrasted with the practice in our American institutions, the English training schools do a great deal more practice teaching and demonstration teaching than it is possible to find in any normal school in this country, and yet there is practically no objection raised in local communities such as has been described in the case of Cedar Falls.

This example serves to emphasize one point that was brought out in the discussion at Cedar Falls. The issue is certainly a state issue, and the distribution of practice teaching will have to be carried out under conditions that make it possible for the state to benefit by this type of training and at the same time to carry whatever burden there is attached to the matter.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Many of the states are passing legislation which aims to enlarge the activities of the school in giving courses and establishing organizations which will improve health conditions. Utah and California have recently enacted such laws, as indicated in the statements issued by the Bureau of Education. The Utah legislation is summarized as follows:

> This law authorizes the State Board of Education to appoint a state director of health education and authorizes local boards of education to expend school funds for health education. The bill directs the State Board of Education to fix requirements for health supervisors and school nurses and requires all teachers of the state to meet certain qualifications in health education.
>
> This bill appropriates $10,000 to equip free dispensaries and clinics at which persons may receive medical or other curative treatment free. Clinics may be equipped on condition that services of practitioners will be rendered free of charge.

The California legislation has been in operation long enough to make it possible for the state director to issue his first annual report. He argues at some length for the new type of work which is being done in that state, as indicated in the following quotation:

> This is a new demand. The causes of the past neglect will illuminate this new demand.
>
> First. The school, as an institution, developed to teach the written language, the three R's, and the cultural content of books. All the rest of education, including physical education, was left to the natural discipline of the home and the community. The book curriculum still holds its traditional

sway, though the "practical" and vocational activities are about to change the balance. Physical education is still in a difficult position. The theory of it has been neglected by schools of education. The schoolman has not thought of it as his problem. He does not understand it.

Second. Public opinion has not gained strength to command an efficient organization of physical education, because only within a few years have we come as a nation out of the dominating influences of pioneer life. In the youth and the traditions of the generation which until recently controlled public opinion, life was more generally in the open, more strenuous, varied, and exciting. Children had a natural, outdoor life which stimulated play and they entered directly into the simple multitudinous activities of the home and the community and they imitated these activities in dramatic play. Adult recreative customs were closely knit into the domestic, industrial, and social life and children entered into these activities. Hence, there has been no general consciousness of the need for an institutionally organized play or physical education.

Third. American Puritanism, with its fear of pleasure and play, established prejudices which fostered the neglect of physical education. American children have suffered from the common idea that play was synonymous with fooling or activity that was not worth while. Closely associated with those feelings are the subtle survivals of medieval asceticism with its contempt for the physical, and medieval scholasticism with its exaltation of the intellect. These have many ramifications of attitude and feeling in educational and cultural thought, especially in our universities, and have fostered the neglect of the "physical" side of education.

Fourth. As traditional educational thought and research have been directed to the intellectual side of education and its psychological foundations, and the corresponding philosophy of physical education and its physiological functions have been neglected by the schools of education, school officials have been left without criteria for judging the functions or values of physical education and have tolerated in many cities cheap adaptations of gymnastic systems which grew in foreign soil, and which had no relationship to American life or ideals and which were as barren of results in developing efficient American citizens as they were in intelligible purpose. This common procedure has not inspired enthusiasm.

HEALTH OF TEACHERS

The Commissioner of Education called a conference some time ago in Washington to discuss matters of child welfare. This conference developed the National Committee of Physical

Education and laid plans for the formulation of a law to be urged upon Congress and upon the various states. We select one item of the program of this committee which has been emphasized as important if the campaign for better physical conditions in the schools is to be successful. This item is formulated by one of the leaders in physical education in the following suggestion:

> That this Association shall make persistent effort to influence state boards of education, or their equivalent bodies, in all the states of the United States, to make it their effective rule that on or after June, 1922, or some other reasonable date, no applicant may receive a license to teach any subject in any school who does not first present convincing evidence of having covered in creditable manner a satisfactory course in physical education in a reputable training school for teachers.

READING IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF INDIANAPOLIS, V.
THE READING MATERIALS

FRANKLIN BOBBITT
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Before one is in a position to select good reading materials for educational purposes, or to pass judgment upon those selected by others, it is necessary first to make clear definition of the purposes of the reading experience. Naturally, in the primary grades one of the ends in view is the mastering of the mechanics of reading. With good teaching of a type that is now common and with a plentiful supply of appropriate reading materials for the primary grades, this has come to be a relatively simple task. The most pressing current question is: "What is the purpose of the reading experience of intermediate and grammar grades after the simple mechanics of reading has been mastered?" The answer that we shall employ in our discussion is this: The purpose is to widen the vision and to extend the experience of the pupils beyond the confines of their narrow immediate environment. It is possible to enumerate other purposes of the reading experience all of which are valid, and none of which are inconsistent with the one here stated. It is believed, however, that the one stated should be dominant; and that if the demands of any other purpose come into conflict with it, such demands should give way to those of this dominant purpose.

Most reading on the elementary level should be for the purpose of vicarious experience. The pupil's best education comes from having a normal, varied experience rather than from the mere memorizing of abstract facts. Within the restricted environment where he lives, his best education

comes from having a great variety of active experience in his play; in his observation of men and affairs about him; in his participation in all sorts of affairs as fully as he is permitted to enter into them; in his conversation with all sorts of people; in his practical labors in shop, garden, civic and sanitary fields, etc. The best education in and for one's immediate community life is what we shall here call experiential education and not mere fact-learning from abstract books concerning that community situation.

Our profession is coming to learn that education must be experiential not only in familiarizing the pupil with his own community, but also in familiarizing him with all the world that lies beyond his narrow horizon. The best way for the individual to become acquainted with this distant world is to travel through it all, to observe men and women and their affairs in all parts of the world, and under all sorts of conditions; to enter into the labors and other activities of men in these lands; to enter for a time into the occupations involved in the great world of human vocation; to participate in the civic and social activities of various peoples, etc. In the face of present demands for world-understanding, cosmopolitan sympathies, and democratic vision of world-problems, there is no type of training that is more needed.

But the physical limitations upon such wide travel, observation, and participation are insuperable. The experience must therefore be vicarious. Those so fortunate as to have valuable types of experience must pass them on to others through the medium of language so that all may in a degree enter into the same experience. One must travel through the world and observe it in order to learn about it; but most of us must travel in imagination and observe through the eyes of others. We must participate in industry, in commerce, in war, in religion, and in civic adjustment, rightly to appreciate these things; but for most of us the major portion of the participation must be

in imagination as we enter vicariously into the experiences of others through reading spirited and well-written accounts that clearly reconstruct the situations for us.

For example, the geographical readings should be such as to permit our children imaginatively to travel through the various cities and countries and regions of the earth. Let them travel in spirit with Livingstone, and Stanley, and Roosevelt, and others, into the heart of Africa and they will have an understanding of the nature of Central Africa that can be given in no other way. Let them travel through reading with Peary to the North Pole and they will have an experiential appreciation of the nature of the polar region almost as clear as if they had been there in the flesh. Through similar spirited accounts let them vicariously enter into the life of Norway, China, Argentina, New Zealand, Canada, Mexico, etc., omitting no important region of the world, and through this reading experience they will acquire a knowledge and an appreciation of the world such as can never be obtained from the most perfect memorization of the facts supplied in our text-book geographies.

Reading of this character should aim, not at information, but at experience. The children should roam through the earth in the pages of their reading merely as a satisfying mode of living. And yet this experience does not mean any lack of information. The getting of information is a portion of the total experience. One remembers one's vital experiences. One of the reasons for demanding in our modern education a great wealth of experience rather than aiming directly at memorizing stories of verbal information is simply that there is a present need of a far greater wealth of information. This is to be arrived at, not by aiming at it directly, and at the information alone, but by aiming at it indirectly through fulness of experience. Information of this character has depth and permanency and emotional warmth. It is assimilated,

becomes a portion of one's permanent mental capital, and is not a thing quickly forgotten as soon as the examinations are over. It means, further, the development of sympathetic appreciations of human life and conditions of activity in various lands.

Children should enter not only into the experiences of present-day peoples, but also into the lives of men in the past. Just as the narrow spatial horizon should be transcended through width of geographical readings, so the narrow horizon of the present should also be transcended by entering through reading into the manifold experiences of our own and other peoples during past ages. Even more than readings concerning the present, historical reading reveals the nature of the problems confronting the peoples of the present. Nothing is quite so potent for developing sympathy and appreciation in this age of growing world-democracy. Probably there is nothing like entering into the historical experiences of the various peoples of the earth that will give to individuals the necessary intellectual outlook and the necessary sympathetic attitudes of mind. This means that the historical experience, like the geographical, must be of no narrow, circumscribed kind. As in the past, it should permit the pupils in our schools to enter into the historical experience of our own country. It should also, as in the past where the work has been well done, permit the reconstruction of the life of the Hebrews, the Greeks, the Romans, and medieval and modern Europeans. But it should go beyond this. The family of the world-democracy with which we need to be well acquainted and in full sympathy is much wider than Western Europe and the United States. There is need as well of permitting our pupils through reading to enter into the experiential past of Mexico, Canada, Brazil, Argentina, Chile, the other South

and Central American regions, Australia, New Zealand, China, Japan, India, Russia, Siberia, Turkey, the Balkan States, and the various regions of Africa.

We are not saying that the histories of these lands should be learned in the way that largely we have been having history learned in the past. We are only saying that our children should be permitted freely and fully to explore the wide and rich fields of the world's historical experience. Naturally, accounts must be selected that are full of action, that appeal to human interest upon the level of the maturity of the juvenile readers. The readings must not be didactic. They must not be dull. They must not consist too much of things that are to be learned in detail, recited upon, made subjects of examination, etc. There is a place for individual and class discussion, for teachers' stimulation and leadership; but both the experiences and the modes of conditioning and stimulating them must be quite different from the old-fashioned method of assignment of work, memorization, and repetition of lifeless facts. Here and there children born short or crushed in the struggle will be found who cannot be reached and who cannot properly enter into this vicarious experience and receive the desired benefits therefrom. The presence of weaklings is no negation of proper experience for the strong.

There are many types of needed reading. We live in a complicated economic world of agriculture, manufacture, commerce, mining, etc. Our civic problems are nowadays mainly problems of economic adjustment. A full knowledge and appreciation of, and sympathetic attitudes toward, the various economic groups in our nation seem to be indispensable for the right performance of our various civic functions. The feeling is now growing that this is a matter that should be adequately taken care of by our schools. We are, therefore, introducing into our most advanced school systems a large variety of practical occupational activities in shop, kitchen,

school garden, etc. But such practical experiences are necessarily very limited. These limitations are to be transcended through a wide reading experience relating to occupational life in the various divisions of our economic world and as these exist in the various portions of our country, and even of the entire world itself. We need readings that permit one in imagination to be a miner, for example, working in our coal mines and through such imaginative participation to have an understanding of, and sympathetic attitude toward, this large and indispensable industry. We need other readings that will permit one for a time to live on a cotton plantation, to work in the cotton mills, on our railway systems, in big department stores, in the steel mills, in furniture factories, etc. Many books are appearing that are designed to induce experience in those fields. An illustrative list is presented later.

The reading should also present a wide and full revelation of human nature and of possible and actual personal relationships, attitudes, emotional reactions, etc. This category naturally overlaps all of the others mentioned, but it appears to be needed by way of showing more clearly the place of that reading which is usually termed literature. Irving's *Sketch Book*, Dickens' *Christmas Carol* and *David Copperfield*, Defoe's *Robinson Crusoe*, etc., are not historical or geographical or industrial in any usual sense of those terms; and yet such literature has an important function to perform in the revelation of human life itself, entirely apart from space and time relations. One's experience with one's immediate associates is always relatively narrow, always partial and incomplete. One needs to read an abundance of literature that is selected for the purpose of revealing all sorts of human passions, emotions, and reactions under all sorts of circumstances.

Problems of health, physical development, sanitation, etc., are coming to be recognized as ranking in importance along

with problems of industrialism and government. Here again, in a well-protected community, one lives in a realm of relatively restricted contacts with the problems. Where the work is well done, there will be as much actual observation and practical activity on the part of the pupils as can be well introduced; but they need here, as with industry and everything else, to see the nature of the problems as they extend outward through the nation and the entire earth. No community exists in isolation, and the appreciation of the national and world-interdependencies is to be developed only through width of concrete reading. Mere fact-learning will not suffice. It fails relatively on the side of information, and leaves one cold.

And then there is the wide field of science. The individual within the narrow realm of his affairs is continually coming into contact with various aspects of nature which, for proper reaction and control, he needs to understand. But this knowledge of mechanics, of applied chemistry, of entomology, bird life, meteorology, etc., cannot be understood in any adequate degree by attention solely to the immediate manifestations. One needs to see bird life, for example, in its wider distributions rightly to appreciate that small segment which lies within one's own immediate horizon. One needs to understand the nature of the insect world, its ravages, and its benefits, as a whole, in order to appreciate the things which are occurring within the field of one's own vision. And so on with the other aspects of the field of science. As much as possible we develop the understanding through direct observation, experiment, and practical application; but after all possible is done, it has given little more than the mere alphabet of science. One needs to wander through the wide and rich fields of science and of its applications, through vicarious reading, rightly to appreciate the science aspects of the world in which he lives.

The human spirit has ever tried to transcend the limitations with which it is hedged about. Not only is there the very solid world of actuality, to various aspects of which we have referred, but there are also any number of merely imaginative worlds of myth and fancy and fairy lore in which one finds himself freed from at least a portion of his limitations. It is generally felt that this type of spiritual liberation is a desirable form of experience and that reading, therefore, should permit the pupil to traverse these free realms fairly widely. It is probable, however, that these should represent nothing more than playful interludes, and should occupy no large proportion of the time after the primary grades are passed.

Before concluding this introductory statement, I should like to make a little more clear the distinction that we have drawn between experiential education and fact-learning education, as these relate to the reading problem. Let us take, for example, Longfellow's poem *Evangeline*. If we were to select a hundred mature men and women at random who read *Evangeline* during their school days, and were to ask them to write all that they remember of the story, it is probable that the average paper would cover no more than two or three pages. That is all that they remember of the story; and yet they are men and women of average success in life. We might conclude, therefore, that since that is all they remember, those two or three pages of facts constituting the framework of the story are all that need to be taught. Instead, therefore, of having our pupils read the entire story of *Evangeline*, we might simply place a synopsis before them and have it studied, the facts memorized and recited, and an examination given, in order that ten years hence they can have a command over the same facts possessed by the men and women of this generation. It is a method of getting at the minimum essentials and having them learned. This would be an example of the fact-learning type that we employ so almost exclusively in the fields of history,

geography, science, industry, hygiene, civics, and even human nature, where we try consciously to teach it directly. It can be seen, however, that this story of *Evangeline* in two or three pages presents the barest bones only of the story. The facts have no life. There is no emotional warmth. The thing cannot be appreciated by those who have never read the full story. To get the minimum of remembered informational essentials, therefore, one must read the whole story. One must move in the current experience of the characters concerned rightly to appreciate the situations or rightly to obtain any proper command over any of the residual information. It is the same with our history, with our geography, and with the other studies enumerated. Too often we try to teach the bare bones of a subject from a brief text of minimum essentials, feeling that we are thereby accomplishing education. Such a compendium leaves our pupils cold. It does not arouse them. It does not shape them, because it is not experiential. It is just as foolish as teaching *Evangeline* through memorization of a synopsis.

In the reading of *Evangeline* it is the experience that is the principal thing. The remembering of facts years after is but the by-product, and a matter of relatively little significance. The growth-results were obtained; and most of such results were deeper than memory. The same is true of most of the historical, geographical, and other experiences referred to. The main thing is to have the experience. This will then result in proper growth along a number of lines of which one's information is but one; and apparently a thing relatively superficial and deciduous.

The bearing of this on school procedure is easily evident. It demands a wide extension of the supplementary and library reading opportunities. It demands much reading; it demands easy reading; it calls for interesting reading; it makes necessary

a type of technique of education quite different from the relatively ineffective fact-learning type.

Now what is the situation of the Indianapolis schools as regards the quantity and character of reading materials employed? There is an unusual degree of uniformity within the various buildings of the city, brought about largely, it appears, by the fact that all buildings are supplied with the same sets of required and supplementary reading materials by the central office. The titles of books that are supplied in sets large enough for class use are here shown:

Grade I B

Required Reading

	Pages
1. *Child Classics Primer*, pp. 1–50	50

Supplementary Reading

Reading Slips.

Teachers should prepare supplementary lessons with the aid of the printing press.

Grade I A

Required Reading

1. *Child Classics Primer.* Complete from page 50	38
2. *Child Classics First Reader*, pp. 1–60	60

Supplementary Reading

3. Summer's *Primer*	107
4. Free and Treadwell's *Primer*	112
5. Blaisdell's *Primer*	95
6. Blaisdell's *First Reader*	127
7. *Story Hour Primer*	122
	661

Grade II B

Required Reading

2. *Child Classics First Reader*, complete from p. 60	53
8. *Child Classics Second Reader*, pp. 1–54	54

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

9.	The Merrill *First Reader*	123
10.	The Edson-Laing *Reader*, Book I	118
11.	*Folk Lore Reader*, Book I	102
12.	*Boy Blue*	165
13.	*Hiawatha Primer*	100
		715

GRADE II A

REQUIRED READING

8.	*Child Classics Second Reader*. Complete from p. 54	105

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

14.	The Edson-Laing *Reader*, Book II	149
15.	*Story Hour Second Reader*	204
16.	Summer's *Second Reader*	174
17.	McMurry's *Robinson Crusoe*	119
18.	Johnson's *Book of Plays for Little Actors*	100
19.	Aldine's *Second Reader*	176
20.	Blodgett's *Second Reader*	165
21.	Free and Treadwell's *Second Reader*	191
		1,383

GRADE III B

REQUIRED READING

22.	The *Howe Third Reader*	248
23.	Andrew's *Seven Little Sisters*	119

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

24.	*Natural Method Second Reader*	256
25.	The Merrill *Second Reader*	184
26.	Baker and Carpenter's *Second Year Language Reader*	152
27.	Stevenson's *A Child's Garden of Verses*	88
28.	*Riverside Second Reader*	175
		1,222

GRADE III A

REQUIRED READING

29.	*Child Classics Third Reader*	252
30.	Jane Andrews' *Each and All*	120

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

31.	The Merrill *Third Reader*	259
32.	*Story Hour Reader*, Book III	236
33.	Stevenson's *Children Classics in Dramatic Form*, Book III	90
34.	Eggleston's *Stories of Great Americans for Little Americans*	159
35.	Scudder's *Fables and Folk Stories*	198
36.	Blaisdell's *Third Reader*. Latter half of term	182
		1,496

GRADE IV B

REQUIRED READING

37.	Tarr and McMurry's *Introductory Geography*	254

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

38.	*Riverside Third Reader*	246
39.	Baldwin's *Thirty Famous Stories Retold*	150
40.	*Black Beauty*. Parts may be read at home	217
41.	Bass's *Stories of Pioneer Life*	136
42.	Blaisdell's *Fourth Reader*	229
33.	Stevenson's *Children's Classics in Dramatic Form*, Book III	90
43.	Harding's *Greek Gods, Heroes and Men*, Part I	81
44.	Gordy's *Stories of American Explorers*	100
		1,503

GRADE IV A

REQUIRED READING

45.	Heath's *Fourth Reader*	320
46.	Carpenter's *North America*. Used in geography period	352
47.	Gordy's *Stories of American Explorers*	100

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

48.	Spyri's *Heidi*	363
49.	Free and Treadwell's *Fourth Reader*	348
50.	Baldwin's *Fifty Famous Stories Retold*	172
51.	Harding's *Greek Gods, Heroes and Men*, Part III	70
		1,725

GRADE V B

REQUIRED READING

52. *Riverside Fourth Reader*	250
53. Carpenter's *Asia*. Used in geography period	380
54. Carpenter's *Australia*. One copy. Used in geography period	384
55. Andrews' *Ten Boys*. Used in geography period	122

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

56. Norton's *Heart of Oak*, Book III. New ed	161
57. *Dog of Flanders*	64
58. Seton's *Lobo, Rag and Vixen*	146
59. Stevenson's *Children's Classics in Dramatic Form*, Book IV	105
60. Church's *Iliad*. Standard School Library Edition	219
	1,831

GRADE V A

REQUIRED READING

61. *Child Classics Fourth Reader*	275
62. Carpenter's *Europe*. Used in geography period	450
55. Andrews' *Ten Boys*. Used in geography period	122

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

63. Baker and Carpenter's *Fifth Year Language Reader*. Norse stories only, pp. 101–94	93
64. Longfellow's *Hiawatha*	184
65. *Robin Hood*	176
66. Ruskin's *King of the Golden River*	98
67. Stevenson's *Children's Classics in Dramatic Form*, Book IV	105
67. (A) *Lisbeth Longfrock*. Optional in buildings where supplied	149
	1,652

GRADE VI B

REQUIRED READING

68. Baldwin's *Fifth Reader*	192
63. Baker and Carpenter's *Fifth Year Language Reader*. Omit Norse stories, pp. 101–94	360
69. Carpenter's *South America*. Used in geography period	350
70. Carpenter's *Africa*. Used in geography period	332
71. Dutton's *Trading and Exploring*	240
72. Mace's *Primary History: Stories of Heroism*	198

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

73. *Art Literature, Fourth Reader*	249
74. Hawthorne's *Wonder Book*	180
75. *Nurnburg Stove.* Optional	70
76. Stockton's *Fanciful Tales*	130
77. *Hans Brinker.* Part may be read at home	275
	2,576

GRADE VI A

REQUIRED READING

78. Aldine's *Fifth Reader*	452
72. Mace's *Primary History: Stories of Heroism*	198
79. Allen's *Industrial Reader*	318
80. Stickney's *Pioneer Indianapolis*	33

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

81. *Page, Esquire and Knight*	178
82. Burrough's *Apples.* Riverside Literature Series 36	15
83. Hawthorne's *Tanglewood Tales*	222
84. Knight's *Dramatic Reader for Upper Grades*	133
85. *Riverside Seventh Reader*	258
	1,807

GRADE VII B

REQUIRED READING

86. Howe's *Fifth Reader,* pp. 1–178	178
87. Gordy's *American Beginnings in Europe*	165

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

88. Baldwin and Bender's *Eighth Reader*	244
89. Burrough's *Essays.* Riverside Literature Series. Optional	100
90. Dickens' *Christmas Carol*	105
91. Slocum's *Around the World in the Sloop Spray*	215
92. Warner's *A-Hunting of the Deer.* Omit introduction	80
93. Knight's *Dramatic Reader for Upper Grades*	133
	1,220

Grade VII A

REQUIRED READING

94.	*Child Classics Fifth Reader*, pp. 1–170	170
87.	Gordy's *American Beginnings in Europe*	165
95.	Kendall's *Mark Twain's Travels in History*	170

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

96.	Burrough's *Birds and Bees*	88
97.	Longfellow's *Miles Standish*	70
98.	Whittier's "Snow-Bound"	27
99.	Burt's *Odysseus*	214
		904

Grade VIII B

REQUIRED READING

94.	*Child Classics Fifth Reader*, pp. 171–366	195
100.	Longfellow's *Evangeline*	100
80.	Stickney's *Pioneer Indianapolis*	33

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

101.	Arnold's *Sohrab and Rustum*	28
102.	Stevenson's *Children's Classics in Dramatic Form*, Book V	163
103.	Poe's *Goldbug*	70
	Washington's *Up from Slavery*. Optional	320
104.	Moore's *Life of Lincoln*	132
		1,041

Grade VIII A

REQUIRED READING

105.	Shakespeare's *Julius Caesar*	97
106.	Bryant's *Ulysses among the Phaeacians*	65
107.	Irving's *Sketch Book*, by Sprague	156
	Lowell's "Commemoration Ode." Lincoln Canto only	2

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

108.	Dickens' *David Copperfield's Childhood*	186
109.	Hale's *Man without a Country*	42
110.	Lowell's *Vision of Sir Launfal*	16
102.	Stevenson's *Children's Classics in Dramatic Form*, Book V	163
		727

The books read are in practically all cases confined to the assigned list. The buildings do not often seem to be supplied with any outside of those included here. They take a fair advantage of the reading opportunities placed at their disposal. The following table presents a rough approximation of the number of pages actually read by certain of the classes. It will be observed that certain of the schools read about everything that is placed at their disposal, while others cover but a minor fraction of it.

TABLE I

NUMBER OF PAGES READ PER YEAR BY CERTAIN CLASSES

Grade	Average No. Pages Read	Lowest No. Read	Highest No. Read
IA.....	580	135	1,160
IIA.....	840	220	1,500
IVA.....	800	210	1,460
VIA.....	880	310	1,925
VIIIA.....	790	300	2,340

An examination of the list shows that it conforms in very considerable measure at least with the requirements stated above that the reading should present a varied revelation of the world's affairs.

GEOGRAPHICAL READINGS

There are a considerable number of books of a geographical nature or which reveal life in different lands. They are shown in the following list:

GEOGRAPHICAL READINGS

23. *Seven Little Sisters*
30. *Each and All*
37. Tarr and McMurry's *Introductory Geography*
46. Carpenter's *Geographical Reader, North America*
48. Spyri's *Heidi*
53. Carpenter's *Asia*
54. " *Australia*
62. " *Europe*
69. " *South America*

70. *Carpenter's Africa*
79. Allen's *Industrial Studies of the United States*
91. *Around the World in the Sloop Spray*

The first two of these books are didactic fiction. A few of the stories are readable. Most of them are rather too didactic and colorless. No. 37 is a good reference book for the IV B class, but it can scarcely be satisfactory from any point of view as a source of reading experience of the type which we have tried to describe in the foregoing paragraphs. It may be good for fact-learning and discussion, but not for reading experience. No. 46 is altogether too difficult, abstract, and didactic for a fourth-grade class. In most cities it is used in the sixth or seventh grade. No. 48, though chosen as literature, is an excellent book for revealing certain aspects of life, topography, etc., in Switzerland. Nos. 53, 54, etc., must be found rather difficult for the children of these grades. There is little action and such quantities of didacticism that it is questionable whether as reading experience these books are well adapted to the needs of children of fifth and sixth grades. No. 79 is a book of modern type which probably should be read in the seventh or eighth grade. No. 91 is the only book of travels in the list.

In introducing one complete series of geographical readers there is clearly the attempt to give readings to the children which reveal all portions of the earth. This is commendable. There is, however, a wealth of geographical reading of a more modern nature which would probably be better suited to the purpose. There is needed further a larger amount of interesting travels and a larger number of stories of a literary character like *Heidi*, which reveal conditions in other lands than Switzerland.

I do not feel myself qualified to draw up a list of geographical readings for Indianapolis. The responsibility is one that rests upon the supervisory and teaching staff. The following

list is presented merely by way of indicating some of the opportunities in this field. The list goes but a little way; it might be indefinitely extended.

GEOGRAPHICAL READINGS

Chamberlain: *How We Are Clothed.*
———: *How We Are Sheltered.*
———: *How We Are Fed.*
———: *How We Travel.*
Carpenter: *How the World Is Clothed.*
———: *How the World Is Housed.*
———: *How the World Is Fed.*
Chance: *Little Folks of Many Lands.*
Shaw: *Big and Little People of Many Lands.*
George, M. M.: "Little Journeys" Series.
MacDonald and Dalrymple: "Little People Everywhere" Series.
Wade, M. H. B.: "Little Cousin" Series.
Morris: *Home Life in All Lands.*
Bullen: *Cruise of the Cachalot.*
Darwin: *Voyage of the Beagle.*
Doubleday: *Year in a Yawl.*
Semmes: *Geographical Influences in American History.*
Stockton: *Personally Conducted.*
The National Geographic Magazine.
Blaich: *Three Industrial Nations.*
Burrows: *Story of English Industry and Trade.*
Winslow: *Geography Readers.*
Perkins: *Dutch Twins, Eskimo Twins, Japanese Twins,* etc.
Finnemore, etc.: "Peeps at Many Lands" Series.

HISTORICAL READINGS

The reading list contains a very considerable number of books of a historical character. A number of the selections apparently chosen for their literary merit are historical at the same time:

HISTORICAL READINGS

34. Eggleston's *Stories of Great Americans for Little Americans.*
39. *Thirty Famous Stories Retold.*
43. Harding's *Greek Gods, Heroes and Men.*

44. Gordy's *Stories of American Explorers.*
50. *Fifty Famous Stories Retold.*
55. Andrews' *Ten Boys.*
60. Church's *Iliad.*
65. *Robin Hood.*
72. Mace's *Primary History: Stories of Heroism.*
81. *Page, Esquire and Knight.*
87. Gordy's *American Beginnings in Europe.*
97. Longfellow's *Miles Standish.*
71. Dutton's *Trading and Exploring.*
80. Stickney's *Pioneer Indianapolis.*
99. Burt's *Odysseus.*
100. Longfellow's *Evangeline.*
104. Moore's *Life of Lincoln.*
105. Shakespeare's *Julius Caesar.*

The average quality of the historical readings is considerably higher than that of the geographical. Many of the readings are good or excellent for the purpose. Among these we would mention Nos. 34, 39, 44, 50, 65, 72, 81, 87, 97, 99, 100, 104, and 105. Some of them are lacking in desirable features. No. 43 presents a mere catalogue of facts of a relatively indigestible sort. No. 55 is bloodless, anemic, historical fiction. It will do a boy no harm to read it if it appeals to him sufficiently for him to do it voluntarily; but it is so characterless as not to be likely to do him any large amount of good. Burt's *Odysseus* is excellent, but it would appear that it should be used in an earlier grade. No. 71 presents an attractive title, but it is a feeble *Ten Boys* type of treatment of ancient and modern trading nations and exploring expeditions. It does not present a straightforward narrative story of matters that need to be presented under that title.

When one looks at the list to see to what extent it presents a historical revelation of human experience in different portions of the world, one finds large and important portions of the earth that are given no historical attention at all. There is

no reading relating to ancient Hebrew life. There is only a very brief account of Greek and Roman life. There is practically nothing on modern Europe, Asia, South America, Mexico, or Australia. It is singularly lacking in biography. On the whole, it must be confessed that, while the list contains a large number of excellent books, yet it seems not to have been chosen with a clear view to the educational purposes that ought to be served by the historical readings.

By way of indicating a few further possibilities, we are here presenting a brief list of historical books or literary works with historical background that are in many quarters thought to be good for the purpose. Naturally one cannot select books from a mere list of titles. They must be examined one by one in relation to the specific situation to be met. This we have not tried to do. This list is mainly for the purpose of showing the kinds of titles we have in mind in presenting the general recommendations for enlargement and focusing upon ends of the historical reading experience. Actual selections should be made by teachers and supervisory staff.

HISTORICAL READINGS

Terry: *History Stories of Other Lands.* 6 vols.
Tappan: *World's Story.* 14 vols.
Griffis: *Romance of Discovery.*
Lang: *True Story Book.*
————: *Red True Story Book.*
Baldwin: *Old Stories of the East.*
Guerber: *Story of the Chosen People.*
Church: *Stories of the East from Herodotus.*
Guerber: *Story of the Greeks.*
Hall: *Men of Old Greece.*
————: *Four Old Greeks.*
Morris: *Historical Tales: Greek.*
Tappan: *Story of the Greek People.*
Baldwin: *Old Greek Stories.*
Church: *Stories of the Old World.*
Kingsley: *Heroes.*

Tappan: *Story of the Roman People.*
Guerber: *Story of the Romans.*
Dalkeith: *Stories from Roman History.*
Morris: *Historical Tales: Roman.*
Hall: *Our Ancestors in Europe.*
Tappan: *American Hero Stories.*
Morris: *Heroes of Progress in America.*
Guerber: *Story of the Thirteen Colonies.*
————: *Story of the Great Republic.*
Coffin: *Old Times in the Colonies.*
Scudder: *Life of Washington.*
Baldwin: *Discovery of the Old Northwest.*
————: *Conquest of the Old Northwest.*
Hart: *Source Readers in American History.*
Barstow: *Century Readings in United States History.*
Sutliffe: *Robert Fulton and His Times.*
Lighton: *Lewis and Clark Expedition.*
Elson: *Side-Lights on American History.*
Mowry: *Inventions and Inventors.*
McMurry: *Pioneer History Series.*
Eggleston: *Stories of American Life and Adventure.*
Foote and Skinner: *Explorers and Founders of America.*
————: *Makers and Defenders of America.*
Morris: *Historical Tales: American.*
Hasbrouck: *The Boy's Parkman.*
Parkman: *Oregon Trail.*
————: *Rivals for America.*
Marshall: *Canada's Story.*
Home: *Canada.*
Coxhood: *Mexico.*
Morris: *Historical Tales: Spanish-American.*
Fletcher and Kipling: *History of England.*
Marshall: *Island Story: A Child's History of England.*
Morris: *Historical Tales: English.*
Tappan: *England's Story.*
Guerber: *Story of the English.*
Home: *Ireland.*
Johnson and Spencer: *Ireland's Story.*
Mitton: *Scotland.*

Marshall: *Scotland's Story.*
Griffis: *Young People's History of Holland.*
Bonner: *Child's History of France.*
Dalkeith: *Stories from French History.*
Guerber: *Story of France.*
Bonner: *Little Stories of Germany.*
Dutton: *Little Stories of Germany.*
Marshall: *History of Germany.*
Morris: *Historical Tales: German.*
Van Bergen: *Story of Russia.*
————: *Story of China.*
————: *Story of Japan.*
Marshall: *India's Story.*
————: *Australia's Story.*
Morris: *Historical Tales: Russia.*
————: *Historical Tales: Japan and China.*
Stevenson: *Dramatized Readings from American History.*
Tappan: *Old World Hero Stories.*
Mabie: *Heroes Every Child Should Know.*

INDUSTRIAL READINGS

In this complicated industrial age one would expect to find in such an extended list as that employed in Indianapolis a considerable number of books that are consciously designed to reveal the industrial situation. As a matter of fact, however, one finds in the long list but one book, Allen's *Industrial Studies of the United States*, which seems to have been chosen for this purpose. A considerable amount of industrial information is met with in the geographical readers, but much of it is there presented in such a fashion as not to be effective. This is clearly one of the aspects of the reading list that has been seriously neglected. The following short list of books shows some of the titles that might be seriously considered in choosing occupational readings:

INDUSTRIAL READINGS

Allen: *Industrial Studies: Europe.*
Tappan: *Maker of Many Things.*

———: *Diggers in the Earth.*
———: *Farmer and His Friends.*
Doubleday: *Stories of Invention.*
Bassett: *Story of Lumber.*
———: *Story of Wool.*
Grey: *The Young Forester.*
Mills: *Story of a Thousand-Year Pine.*
White: *The Blazed Trail.*
Cooke: *Day in an Iron Works.*
———: *Visit to a Coal Mine.*
———: *Visit to a Cotton-Mill.*
———: *Visit to a Woolen-Mill.*
———: *A Day with Leather-Workers.*
Samuel: *Story of Iron.*
———: *Story of Gold and Silver.*
Morgan: *Boy Electrician.*
Moffett: *Careers of Danger and Daring.*
Mauls: *Boy's Book of New Inventions.*
Price: *The Land We Live In.*
Bond: *With Men Who Do Things.*
———: *Pick, Shovel and Pluck.*
Kipling: *Captain's Courageous.*
Brooks: *Story of Cotton.*
Williams: *Wonders of Modern Invention.*
DuPuy: *Uncle Sam's Modern Miracles.*
Keller and Bishop: *Commercial and Industrial Geography.*
Mowry: *American Inventions and Inventors.*
Bogart: *Economic History of the United States.*
Coman: *Industrial History of the United States.*
Dunbar: *History of Transportation in the United States.*
Hebard: *Pathbreakers from River to Ocean.*
Popular Mechanics
Coe: *Heroes of Everyday Life.*
Mowry: *Captains of Industry.*
Parton: *American Heroes and Heroism.*
Bolton: *Lives of Girls Who Became Famous.*
———: *Lives of Poor Boys Who Became Famous.*

SCIENCE READINGS

The science field is also one of the seriously neglected ones.

The only nature readings are those of the following books:

NATURE READINGS

58. Seton's *Lobo, Rag and Vixen.*
82. Burrough's *Apples* (optional).
89. Burrough's *Essays* (optional).
96. Burrough's *Birds and Bees.*

It seems quite clear that these selections have been made because of their literary merit rather than for the sake of giving the children a vision of the wide fields of science. The readings are good so far as they go—though there is some question about the placing of the optional readings from John Burroughs. The problem for the city is first to make a clear definition of the purposes of having science readings; and then upon the basis of these accepted purposes to draw up a list of readings that serve the purposes. The following list is intended to present a few suggestive titles for consideration:

SCIENCE READINGS

Sharp: *A Watcher in the Woods.*
Du Puy: *Uncle Sam, Wonder Worker.*
Gould: *Mother Nature's Children.*
Weed: *Bird Life Stories.*
————: *Stories of Insect-Life.*
————: *Seed-Travellers.*
————: *Wild Flower Families.*
Morley: *Bee People.*
Morgan: *Boy, Electrician.*
Maule: *Boy's Book of New Inventions.*
Kingsley: *Madame How and Lady Why.*
Burns: *Stories of Great Inventions.*
Herrick: *Earth in Past Ages.*
Rogers: *Earth and Sky Every Child Should Know.*
Wood: *Popular Natural History.*
Holden: *The Sciences.*
————: *Real Things in Nature.*
Popular Mechanics.
Scientific American.
National Geographic Magazine.

[*To be continued*]

AN EXPERIMENT IN COLUMN VERSUS DICTATION SPELLING

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THE PROBLEM

The original purpose of the present experiment was twofold. On the one hand, it was hoped that the theory that children spell better when given a list of words than when confronted with the normal writing situation might be verified. On the other hand, it was hoped that this important difference might be brought in a forceful way before the teachers of the elementary school. It was thought that if teachers could take active part in the process of proving the difference, it would lay a better foundation for improving the teachers' theory and practice along this line than would a discourse upon the point by the supervisor.

The suggestiveness of certain by-products that developed from the experiment, together with the value that the experiment has proved to have as a supervisory device, has led the writer to offer this report for publication.

PREVIOUS EXPERIMENTS

Among the great number of spelling experiments with which the past decade abounds there have been some concerned with the question of difference in ability exhibited with spelling in column as compared with spelling in composition. Only two such experiments will be referred to here.

In 1910 Wallin[1] performed a "column versus composition" test in spelling with a few over a thousand pupils in Grades IV–VIII, inclusive, in the schools of Cleveland. The column test was the regular January interschool examination. Under

[1] J. E. Wallin, *Spelling Efficiency* (Warwick & York, 1911).

Wallin's directions words were selected from these tests and arranged in compositions by the teachers and dictated to the pupils for the second test. The average score made in the column test was 97.72, and 96.28 in the composition test. With such results Wallin concludes, of course, that "the average loss of efficiency through transfer is so slight as to be negligible."[1]

The average scores made on Wallin's tests are very high, and consequently a large percentage of the pupils must have made perfect scores. In such a case the grades obtained could not represent relative abilities, because there was insufficient opportunity for distribution. Furthermore, it is evident that the words were very easy for the pupils tested, as indicated by the high average. It seems reasonable to suppose that pupils would have a strong tendency to spell easy words correctly in either situation. Careful reading of the report reveals other facts that, along with these, throw a shadow over the authenticity of the results. He admits, for instance, that the narratives composed by the teachers were unsatisfactory.[2]

Cook and O'Shea[3] report a "column versus contextual" spelling test carried on with four boys as subjects. They chose easy parts from *Robinson Crusoe* and from an account of the Chicago Fire and dictated them for the contextual test. Then two days later they gave a column test covering the same material. The results showed a 3.44 per cent loss in transfer. Because they believed the dictation work too formal for good results they devised a second test, in which the boys were requested to write compositions on subjects of interest to them. Both misspelled and properly spelled words were chosen from the compositions and given in a subsequent column test. It was found that the loss through transfer in this second experiment was 16 per cent as compared to the 3.44 per cent for the

[1] J. E. Wallin, *Spelling Efficiency*, p. 65.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 28
[3] *The Child and His Spelling*, (Bobbs Merrill, 1914), chap. v.

first. The following statement from the authors is pertinent: "If two activities—isolated as contrasted with contextual spelling—be analyzed, certain differences appear. In the case of the former, the attention is applied on a few words, while in the latter it is distributed over a large number. . . . . Furthermore, the context is likely to present a line of thought to the pupil, and this may distract his attention."

According to the authors the distracting influences would not be so operative in the dictation work as in the interesting composition work. Hence the difference in the amount of loss through transfer.

METHOD

The present experiment dealt with Grades III–VIII, inclusive, in the Hot Springs school. The spelling material was taken from the Ayres Scale. The words for the various grades were taken from columns, the norms of which were low enough to make it difficult for any pupil to make a perfect score. With these columns before him the writer made up a narrative for each grade to be tested, working in twenty words from the column for each grade except the eighth. Only ten words were used for the eighth grade because there were only a dozen words in the column the norm of which was considered sufficiently low.

Following is a sheet of directions made out for the fifth-grade teacher:

> During a regular penmanship period dictate the following little story and have the pupils write it. The story has but little sense for an adult, but it is probably sufficiently logical and consistent to satisfy the pupils, under the conditions. This is to be a spelling test, but the pupils are not to know it. The underscored words are the ones in question. Be sure not to give any help on any word underscored. You may give assistance on other words if you choose. Be diplomatic, however, in keeping the pupils from knowing that the spelling is being tested. If asked for the spelling of an underscored word you might say that the pupil should know that word and that, therefore, you cannot assist him. Get the pupils to write at as nearly

their natural speed and quality as possible. The point is to get these words spelled under as nearly normal writing conditions as possible. Your careful co-operation will be gratefully appreciated. Later on in the year other tests will be given to show the improvement made.

[The words underscored in the original are italicized in this article.]

"*Cities* are so hot in summer that I decided to *spend* my *vacation* on the farm with *Mrs.* Hall, her *husband* and the *daughter*. Hall's are a very nice *family* and I knew that I would *enjoy* staying with them. They have a *beautiful* farm, too, and an *auto*. It was no *trouble* to *obtain* my parents' consent to let me go. So I set out one morning about six *o'clock* for the Hall farm, on foot. I am a *rapid* walker. With little *loss* of time I came in *view* of the farm within a couple hours. I found Mr. Hall busy trying to *repair* an *engine*. His wife was reading a *newspaper*. They soon made me feel at home, and from the very start I had all the fun my heart could *desire*. I am back at school now, but if I can I am going to spend another summer at the Hall farm."

During a regular spelling period (after the above has been given) pronounce the above underscored words and have the pupils write them just as you do in your ordinary written spelling recitations. Be sure that no pupil gets any help on any word.

Kindly grade both sets of papers, counting off five for each word misspelled. From your class roll make an alphabetical list of the pupils' names down the left-hand side of a Palmer Method sheet. To the right of the sheet rule off three columns. In the first column put the grades made in the first test. In the second put the grades made in the second test, and in the third put the grades that you gave the pupils on their report cards for the first month.

Hand in the grade sheets together with the papers used by the pupils in both tests.

The direction sheets made out for other teachers were the same as the foregoing except for the narratives, which were made to fit the grade for which they were intended, as nearly as the writer was able to make them. No words were used that should be harder to spell than the words being tested. The material was designed to lie well within the comprehension of the pupil and to be reasonably interesting.

In addition to receiving the written directions, which were intended for reference, the teachers were called into special conference before the tests were given and important matters were emphasized.

RESULTS

Table I summarizes the results that bear upon the relationship of spelling abilities as exhibited in the two tests. The table shows that the mean score for each grade stands distinctly in favor of the superiority of results for the column test. The arithmetic mean for these mean differences favors the column test by 10.9 per cent. The fourth, fifth, and sixth columns show the relationship with respect to the number of pupils who spelled better by one method than by the other. The percentage of pupils (sixth column) also stands in favor of the column test for each grade, with an average of 69.7 per cent spelling better by the column method. On the whole, it may be said that the table shows a clear-cut case in favor of the superiority of results for the isolated spelling.

TABLE I

SCORES MADE IN THE COLUMN AND DICTATION TESTS

Grades	Mean Scores in Column Test	Mean Scores in Dictation Test	Differences in Favor of Column Test	Number Taking Both Tests	Number Making Better Scores on Column Test	Percentage Making Better Scores on Column Test	Ayres Norm
Third	71.7	58.7	23.0	34	26	76.4	84
Fourth	82.9	73.2	9.7	27	20	74.0	79
Fifth	76.6	69.5	7.1	31	19	61.3	79
Sixth	51.6	40.2	11.4	26	22	84.6	73
Seventh	71.2	61.7	9.5	24	15	62.5	73
Eighth	67.6	62.8	4.8	23	14	60.8	79
Arithmetic Mean	.....	.....	10.9	.....	.....	69.7	.....
Total	.....	.....	.....	165	116	.....	.....

The results indicate a much better distribution of scores than that obtained by Wallin, and from that point of view should be more reliable. The loss through transfer stands about halfway between that found by Wallin and that found by Cook and O'Shea in their first experiment. Cook and O'Shea maintain that the reason that the dictation work does not show as much loss in transfer as the regular composition work is that it is more formal in nature. If this explanation is accepted, it leads to the conclusion that the dictation work in the present experiment was considerably less formal than that used by Wallin or that used by Cook and O'Shea in their first experiment, but that it was not as "informal" as the composition work used by the latter experimenters in their second test. From these facts it may be said that the dictation work used by the writer points in the same direction as composition work, so far as spelling results are concerned. This consideration helps to substantiate the reliability of the method for experimental purposes. Even though the lack of transfer may not be as prevalent with the dictation narratives as with regular written work, the results ought to be parallel and differ only in degree and not in direction. If the results are reliable, the dictation method lends itself to experiment more readily and would, therefore, be more useful.

It should probably be reiterated here that the writer's chief purpose in the experiment was to try out the supervisory value of the scheme as a device for leading teachers into a vision in the place of trying to force a vision upon them. Therefore some consideration should be given to the reactions of the teachers.

The results of the experiment were presented to the teachers in one table and two charts. The table contained results identical with those of Table I of this report. The teachers readily caught the significance of the summary and volunteered the statement that the experiment had proved that they would

have to provide special means for getting the spelling to function in the regular written work or much of their efforts would be wasted. They offered such solutions as using dictation work in the regular spelling lessons and checking up the spelling in the written work connected with all subjects.

One of the charts presented diagrammatically the data in the first and seventh columns of the table. A curve was plotted for the Ayres norms and another for the average scores made in the column test for the various grades. Vertical lines drawn between the junction points of the two curves showed the teachers graphically how much improvement would have to be made in each grade in order to reach the standard scores by the end of the year. (The tests were given in September.) The fourth-grade average went slightly above the norm. The sixth grade fell far below, and the other grades represented normal progress. The teachers showed a keen interest in making the average scores reach the standards by the end of the year.

The second chart was devised to show up discrepancies in the teachers' scoring. The sixth grade was chosen as representative. A curve was plotted for the scores made by the individual pupils, taken at random, upon the Ayres column test. A second curve was drawn to articulate with the first, using the grades placed by the teacher upon the monthly report. The curves were brought together by separating the base lines a distance equal to the difference in the mean scores for the two sets of marks. The "amplitudes" for the Ayres scores were ridiculously greater than those for the teachers' marks curve, which approached a straight line. In one case two individuals received the same grade on their cards, while one of them got next to the highest score on the Ayres test and the other next to the lowest. There were numerous other discrepancies of this kind, but of lesser degree. The chart served as a very vivid revelation to the teachers as a group, as evidenced

by remarks and other expressions. They all seemed to stand convinced that they would have to take more care in marking their pupils more nearly in accordance with relative abilities.

After the charts were discussed, the supervisor directed the teachers to the chapter on spelling in Charter's *Teaching the Common Branches*. The writer believes that the teachers read and discussed this chapter with much more interest and energy than they could possibly have done without the results of the experiment in their minds.

TABLE II

SOME INCIDENTAL RESULTS OF SIGNIFICANCE

Grade	Percentage Making Better Score in Column Test	Coefficient Correlation	Mean Differences between Tests for Poor Spellers*	Mean Differences between Tests for Good Spellers*	Mean Deviation (from A.M.) Column Test	Mean Deviation (from A.M.) Dictation Test
Third	76.4	94.2	18.7	7.0	22.7	29.0
Fourth	74.0	92.0	12.3	7.6	10.4	14.0
Fifth	61.3	89.4	5.0	8.2	17.3	17.3
Sixth	84.6	90.9	9.6	13.3	21.4	21.4
Seventh	62.5	84.4	9.8	4.5	16.7	18.0
Eighth	60.8	97.6	12.5	6.6	19.3	21.7
Arithmetic Mean.			11.3	7.9	17.9	20.2

*Good or poor spellers: those above or below the mean in column test. All average differences in favor of column test.

Table II summarizes results that are more or less incidental to the main purpose of the experiment. These results are obtained from numbers too small to warrant definite conclusions, but they are suggestive and are deemed worthy of consideration here.

The first column of data, taken from Table I, shows a tendency for the percentage of pupils doing better in the column test to diminish in the upper grades. The sixth grade offered an exception to the rule, but their case might be thrown out on

the ground that they are very poor spellers. One would expect an adult to show his spelling ability in his ordinary writing better than a child. If so, one would expect children as they approach adulthood to show an increasing tendency toward easy transfer of spelling ability.

The second column of the table shows the correlation coefficients for the two methods of spelling. These figures simply show how strong the tendency is for the poor spellers in one method to be poor in the other and for the good spellers to be good in both. Only the relative values of the coefficients are of significance. These coefficients are higher for the lower grades and for the eighth grade than for the intermediate grades. The writer is prepared to offer only his own personal explanation for this situation: In the lower grades writing habits are not yet formed, and the child spells as well one way as another. As the child proceeds with his written work he learns spelling habits in connection with it that are different from the spelling habits connected with the spelling lesson. The intermediate grades represent the transition period. Out of it the child comes either a good speller or a poor one by habit. With increased maturity the ability to spell in one situation merges into the ability to spell in another. So with the lack of spelling ability. Thus the correlation would be low for the intermediate grades. This explanation is based upon an assumption that is different from that put forth by Cook and O'Shea. They lay the difference in the ability shown in the two spelling situations to a difference in the degree of concentration. The writer does not believe that this is a sufficient explanation. Probably every adult has experienced the difficulty of spelling an easy word under the spell of over-concentration. As the child approaches adulthood he probably experiences similar conditions. Does the child not form spelling habits for his writing work that have to be broken down, unless they have been prevented, before efficient transfer can be made? Are not

the habits, unless precautions are taken, different habits for the two situations?

The third and fourth columns of the table are the results of an attempt to determine whether or not the poor spellers exhibited greater difficulty in transfer than the better spellers. A division into three groups was first tried but abandoned. Then a division was made by calling those who scored above the mean the "good spellers" and those who scored below, the "poor spellers." Then the differences between the two sets of scores were averaged separately for the two groups. Where differences were in favor of the dictation spelling they were given a negative sign and added algebraically in determining the mean. The arithmetic mean of the columns gives a ratio of 11.3 to 7.9 in favor of the better spellers in ability to transfer. This would probably be expected. The good spellers show considerable uniformity throughout the grades in ability to transfer. The sixth grade offers an exception, due possibly to the fact that the whole grade ranks poor. For the poor spellers the difficulty of transfer seems to be greatest in the lower and the eighth grades. The fact that the tests were so difficult for the poor spellers and that they were able to spell so few words properly in either situation renders the results for them unreliable for comparative treatment.

The last two columns in the table show the mean deviations for the two tests. The deviations are strikingly similar for each grade, but they are variable for the different grades, being greatest in the third, sixth, and eighth. The averages show a ratio of 17.9 to 20.2 for all grades, in favor of a greater deviation for the dictation work. Since the dictation work is a more complex situation and, as Cook and O'Shea point out, the attention is divided, one would expect a greater deviation. No general tendencies can be determined from the data with regard to any significant changes throughout the grades.

CONCLUSIONS

Final conclusions should not be drawn from an experiment so limited in extent as this one except where they may be verified by comparison with previous experiments along the same line. With these restrictions the following conclusions are offered:

1. Children spell more poorly in dictation work than they do in column and they probably spell still more poorly in ordinary written work.

2. The method of the present experiment serves to put this important difference before the teachers in a forceful way. Such a method suggests a better starting-point for progress than a discourse by the supervisor on the same point.

3. The difference found for dictation versus the column method is probably parallel to the difference for other contextual versus column spelling and varies from it in degree, but not in essential significance.

4. The difficulty in transfer seems to be greater in the lower than in the upper grades.

5. There are indications that the child forms writing habits for words that interfere with transfer. The effects of these habits become noticeable in the upper grades.

6. Poor spellers exhibit greater difficulty in transfer than do the better ones.

7. The deviation in spelling ability is enhanced in the dictation spelling. The difference is not so great as might be expected were the variation in the two abilities to be entirely attributed to a variation in concentration.

8. Special precautions must be taken if the spelling of the spelling lesson is to function efficiently in written work.

9. The written work of the child should be checked for spelling in order to forestall writing habits disastrous to good spelling.

REMAINING ERRORS IN MEASURES OF RETARDATION

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THE VALUE OF AGE-GRADE STATISTICS

Age-grade censuses have been followed by improvement of conditions in many cities, and therefore it may be assumed that they have some value as instruments of agitation inciting administrators to make more detailed studies and to take remedial steps. It has become a question, however, whether the pioneer type of age-grade statistics is now worth the effort expended by teachers and compilers or is greatly beneficial to anybody in particular. These crude studies take account merely of the relation between a child's chronological age and his school grade. The significant fact is the progress the child has made, and this is not accurately shown by age-grade tables.

The age-grade system has usually involved the assumption that the first grade is suitable for children six or seven, or perhaps seven or eight years of age. Sometimes the grade and age allotments are a little more rigid, the first grade being intended for children six years of age, the second grade for children seven years of age, etc. Recent years have brought emphasis upon individual differences, capacities, and interests, and upon social conditions, rather than upon mere chronological age as a criterion for grade standing. It is well known that true age, or maturity, refers to the status of anatomical, of physiological, and of mental development rather than chiefly to the calendar.

There is nothing novel in the assertion today that an exhaustive age-grade-progress analysis is really ninefold rather than threefold, owing to the fact that pupils in any one of the three groups, over-age, at-age, or under-age, may have made faster-than-normal, normal, or slower-than-normal progress. Maxwell, Bryan, Cornman, Falkner, Ayres, and Greenwood years ago attacked the problem of age-grade censuses, and Van Sickle, Witmer, and Ayres in 1911 explained a simple device by which a fourfold, and, if desired, more numerous, grouping could easily be made.[1] The studies of Bachman, Bean, Henmon, Keyes, and of Allen, have further augmented the discussion of the subject. Ayres's Cleveland study makes plain the ninefold classification. Only a small number of cities or states, however, are publishing other than analyses based upon the threefold grouping, i.e., over-age, at-age, under-age. Notable examples of the use of the threefold grouping (at-age, under-age, over-age) are observed in the studies of Strayer for 318 cities,[2] of Berry for 225 Michigan towns and cities,[3] of Miss Rankin for 241,617 Wisconsin pupils,[4] in the study of Kansas pupils, in the Dayton, Ohio, analysis, in the San Francisco survey, and in the recent report of the Gary schools.[5]

Where individual record cards for pupils are not available there is of course extenuation for using the easily filled age-grade blank of other days. Some of our best writers on school administration either omit entirely any reference to the necessary ninefold type of analysis (combining the elements of age,

[1] VAN SICKLE, WITMER, and AYRES, "Provisions for Exceptional Children in Public Schools," *U.S. Education Bulletin No. 14*, 1911 (92 pp.), pp. 26–27.

[2] G. S. STRAYER, "Age and Grade Census of Schools and Colleges," *U.S. Education Bulletin No. 5*, 1911 (144 pp.).

[3] C. S. BERRY, *A Study of Retardation, Acceleration, Elimination, and Repetition in the Public Elementary Schools of 225 Towns and Cities of Michigan* (University of Michigan, 1916; 48 pp.), also in *Report of State Superintendent*, 1915–16.

[4] JANET R. RANKIN, *Wisconsin's Over-Age Children*. Issued by C. P. CARY, State Superintendent, Madison, Wis., 1916.

[5] *The Gary Schools, A General Account*. By ABRAHAM FLEXNER and FRANK P. BACHMAN New York, 1918; 263 pp.), p. 186.

grade, and progress), or else only refer to the matter incidentally while describing the cruder threefold grouping.

OVER-AGENESS NOT ALWAYS RETARDATION

Over-ageness (pedagogical retardation) of a pupil, according to the arbitrary age-grade classification, is, of course, not synonymous with retardation in the sense of physical or mental immaturity. Many children are *over-age*, but nevertheless their individual records may show that they entered school at an age later than six years, or that by intermittent attendance they have lost time. There are even cases where over-age children actually have made rapid progress because they skipped grades after entering late. In the same manner the career either of an *at-age* or of an *under-age* pupil may have been characterized by late entrance, lost time, skipping grades, repeating grades, etc. It is evident that the common use of the word *retarded* as synonymous with *over-ageness* is misleading. If we use Ayres's latest terminology (for he, too, used the threefold grouping in his pioneer book, *Laggards in Our Schools*[1]) we find the correct classification of pupils according to age, grade, and progress to be ninefold.[2] Rugg also calls attention to this grouping.[3]

PEDAGOGICAL RETARDATION VARIABLE IN CAUSE

Before our consideration of age-grade-progress data and ninefold tables in contrast with the age-grade threefold type of analysis, we may pause to consider the merits of the assumption that most pedagogical retardation is actually a matter of slow progress. We shall find that, while this may be true as a general tendency, nevertheless there are wide variations of deep significance for school supervision. This fact is brought out by the ninefold, not by the threefold, type of group analysis.

[1] L. P. Ayres, *Laggards in Our Schools* (New York, 1909; 236 pp.).

[2] *Ibid.*, "Child Accounting in the Public Schools," *Cleveland Survey*, 1916 (68 pp.), pp. 40–47.

[3] Harold O. Rugg, *Statistical Methods Applied to Education* (New York, 1917; 410 pp.), pp. 347–48.

It has been assumed that by far the majority of children who are over-age are those who have actually made slow progress—that is, repeated one or more of the grades through which they have passed. It is desirable to test the probable variation in this matter by means of figures based on actual age-grade-progress analyses. For this test there are accessible two arrays of statistics. The one comprises data gathered during the years 1914 and 1915 in the city of New Orleans. The other is the result of an age-grade-progress analysis made by Clarence A. Rubado, a student of the University of Wisconsin working under the writer's direction and with the co-operation of Superintendent R. B. Dudgeon, of the city of Madison, Wisconsin, during 1916. From these data the writer has derived Table I.

TABLE I

PROPORTION OF OVER-AGE PUPILS WHO HAVE MADE SLOW PROGRESS AMONG SIX GROUPS, OR 60,675 CHILDREN

CITY	TOTAL REGISTER	TOTAL OVER-AGE		FOR ALL GRADES OVER-AGE AND SLOW PROGRESS		PERCENTAGES OF OVER-AGE PUPILS IN EACH GRADE WHO MADE SLOW PROGRESS							
		No.	Per Cent	Avg. Per Cent	A.D.	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
New Orleans, La., 1914–15	Boys, 13,844	5844	42	68	8.5	58	67	73	80	78	73	61	50
	Girls, 14,668	5241	36	63	8.3	57	61	70	74	72	69	57	44
New Orleans, La., 1913–14	Boys, 13,792	6083	44	71	6.8	61	74	74	81	79	72	74	55
	Girls, 14,756	5835	40	68	8.1	56	66	76	78	83	65	64	57
Madison, Wis., 1916–17	Boys, 1,833	694	08	75	4.9	66	80	79	75	72	79	81	67
	Girls, 1,782	493	28	67	7.3	46	65	71	79	77	63	69	64

Table I seems to indicate definite tendencies among the 60,675 pupils with reference to the relation of over-age and slow progress. We may draw up these three suggestions from the table:

1. If we *disregard* (*a*) marked differences between grades and sexes, and (*b*) variabilities, then the general average, about 69 per cent (for New Orleans, 71 per cent; for Madison 68 per cent), gives a general estimate of 70 per cent of over-ageness due to slow progress.

2. This general average is illusory, and it is unreliable for general administrative use in estimating the significance of over-ageness in the various groups. For example: (*a*) In 19 out of 24 grade-groups the over-age girls exhibit lower percentages of slow progress than do the boys. (*b*) Grades I, II, VII, and VIII, in more than half of the groups, fall far below the 70 per cent estimate. (*c*) Doubtless considerable variation would appear in the foregoing particulars were further comparisons to be made of age-grade-progress records from many cities rather than from the two cities in the present instance. These exceptions, however, disprove any general assumption that over-ageness is invariably due to slow progress.

3. Where the proportion of over-age children who have made slow progress is relatively low, it indicates lost time, intermittent attendance, etc., which demand co-operation on the part of parents. It is unjust to impute to the school either the chief blame for the causation, or the burden of removal, of a considerable proportion of existing over-ageness or alleged "retardation." This constitutes an incentive to scientific statistical work in school systems, as well as to more effective help on the part of parents' school associations.

A similar table could be made from available arrays of data, in order to ascertain the proportions of at-age ("normal") and under-age ("accelerated") pupils who are respectively of slow, of usual, or of rapid progress, as gauged by the criterion of promotion records.

AGE-GRADE-PROGRESS STUDIES

It has been ten years since the extensive and pioneer studies of Ayres and of Strayer,[1] and since that time city school systems have introduced individual record cards for pupils, which render much easier than formerly the accurate study of age-grade progress. Averill notes a tendency to get away from a liberal margin of "years of normal age" which would enable any city to have a comfortable preponderance of "normal" pupils, and perhaps to exceed the record of other cities.[2] We shall present here in abbreviated form illustrative age-grade-progress studies from three cities which bring out the contrast to the older method.

During two consecutive years, 1913–14 and 1914–15, with the help of teachers and principals and Superintendent Gwinn, of New Orleans, the writer obtained complete age-grade-progress data from 82 schools.[3] The Ayres standard was used; that is, a child six or seven years of age in the first grade, or one seven or eight years of age in the second grade, was considered to be of "normal age," etc. The published tables which summarized the data showed (1) a fourfold age-grade-progress analysis of each grade of every school, (2) the central tendency for the city in each age-grade-progress group, (3) the average deviations for the city, (4) the number and percentages of present repeaters, and (5) of beginners.

In Cleveland, Ohio, during June, 1915, a classification of all of the public-school pupils was made by Ayres into children who are below normal age, of normal age, and above normal age for their grades, and these three groups were again classified according to progress into groups making respectively rapid

[1] G. S. STRAYER, "Age and Grade Census of Schools and Colleges," *U.S. Education Bulletin No. 5*, 1911 (144 pp.).

[2] W. A. AVERILL, *Seventeenth Yearbook, Nat. Soc. for the Study of Education*, 1918, chap. viii.

[3] D. S. HILL, *Measurements in Elementary Education* (New Orleans, 1914; 70 pp.), pp. 5–38; also in *Report of Board of School Directors*; D. S. HILL and MARY L. RAILEY, *Educational Research in Public Schools 1915* (211 pp.), pp. 18–35; also in *Report of Board of School Directors*.

progress, normal progress, and slow progress—altogether yielding nine age and progress groups.[1] Ayres considered a child seven years of age in the first grade to be of "normal

TABLE II

AGE AND PROGRESS CLASSIFICATION OF CHILDREN IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF CLEVELAND, OHIO, AT CLOSE OF YEAR 1914–15

PROGRESS	AGE FOR GRADE		
	Young	Normal	Old
Rapid	4,574	1,034	871
Normal	21,262	16,637	4,136
Slow	480	6,451	15,344

age" in Cleveland. Table II shows the general results for Cleveland, and Fig. 1 indicates the same data reduced to percentages. Ayres did not print the results for each grade of each school, or for the schools separately for other than the over-age slow-progress group. For this group, the percentages range from 9.5 to 47.4 per cent; median 20.7 per cent.

In Madison, Wisconsin, Clarence A. Rubado, as indicated above, made during the fall of 1916 a study of the Madison, Wisconsin, public schools. Mr. Rubado secured and analyzed age-grade-progress data from all of the twelve schools of Madison. The completed tables were presented to the teachers and principals and have been of considerable supervisory value, it is said. The Madison study is quite exhaustive, because the analyses included all of the different divisions both of the New Orleans and of the Cleveland groupings.[2] The study of Mr. Rubado has not been printed, and we present here for the first time one of his charts—that one showing the averages for each grade for the city as a whole (Fig. 2). It

[1] L. P. AYRES, "Child Accounting in the Public Schools," *Cleveland Survey*, 1916 (68 pp.), pp. 40–47.

[2] C. A. RUBADO, *The Present Status of the Pupils in All of the Public Elementary Schools of Madison, Wisconsin, with Regard to Progress-Grade-Age, Repetition, and Related Problems.* Thesis; 57 pp.) University of Wisconsin, 1917.

will be observed that Mr. Rubado first classified the pupils into children of rapid progress, normal progress, and slow progress, and then subdivided these three divisions into the *over-age*, *at-age*, and *under-age* groups (altogether, nine groups).

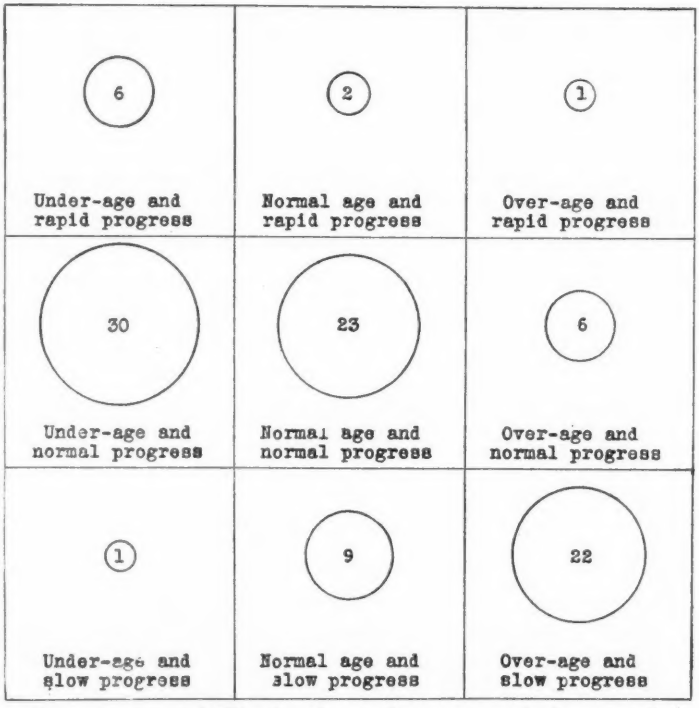

FIG. 1.—Percentage of children in each age and progress group in elementary schools of Cleveland, Ohio, at close of year 1914–15.

He also shows a tenth group, the *pupils at present repeating* and, an eleventh, the *numbers of beginners*. It is to be noted that the age standard for Madison is one grade per year, and entrance age is six years. Fig. 2 graphically shows 144 facts of possible supervisory value for the Madison schools.

METHODS OF TABULATION AND INVESTIGATION

The usual scientific care should dominate all studies of child-accounting. There are well-known precautions to be observed in data getting, in analysis, and in inferences. Buck-

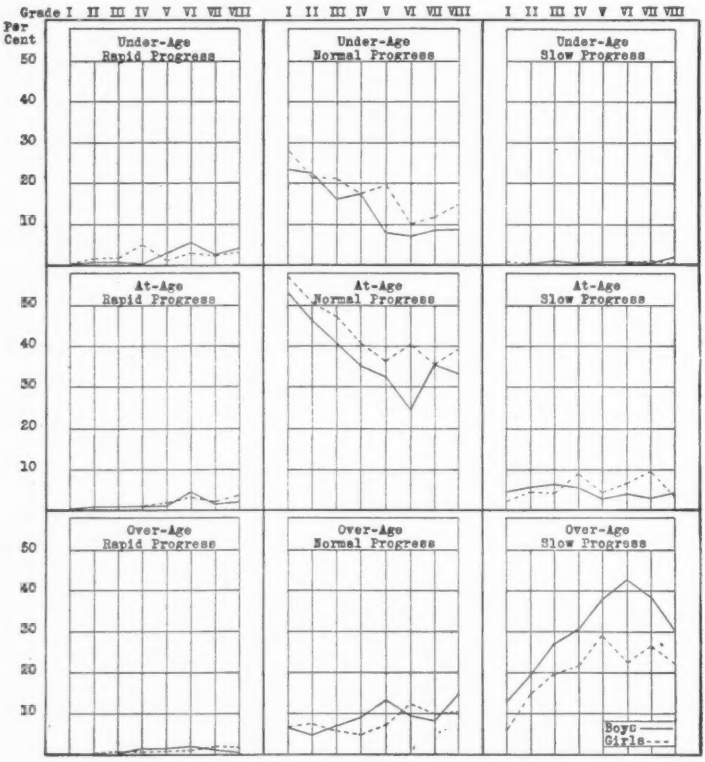

FIG. 2.—Age-grade-progress analysis of Madison schools

ingham,[1] has formulated these guiding suggestions for gathering statistics in regard to the age and grades of children:

1. It is desirable to receive the information directly from its source.

[1] B. R. BUCKINGHAM, "Efficiency Indices," *Bulletin of Extension Division, Indiana University*, No. 6, 1917, pp. 107–8.

2. All tabulations should be made at the central office, under the direction of a person trained for this kind of work.

3. The record of the ages of children should be taken at the time when the problem of adjustment arises and when remedial measures may, therefore, be taken.

4. The standard should be such that children are regarded as over-age if they are not in the way of being graduated by the time they reach the age of fifteen.

5. The central office should promptly report to principals and teachers the rates for their schools and classes, and should make available to them all the supporting data.

Buckingham has used an ingenious blank for data-gathering which necessitates only entering a score-mark opposite the year and under the month of a pupil's birthday.[1] It is to be noted, however, that the blank yields only age-grade (three-fold) analyses, and that it would be desirable to try out this blank and other blanks on a large group of teachers in order to ascertain the relative numbers of errors of age made upon each kind of blank, as checked by individual record cards.

The difficulty of obtaining accurate age and progress data from teachers is an old one. Where accumulative record cards are not kept, special investigations by teachers to ascertain the age and the school records of pupils are necessary. The difficulty can be met eventually by means of: (1) well-kept, accumulative individual record cards; (2) simple and clear blank forms for age-grade-progress censuses, forms easily understood and to be filled out with a minimum of labor; (3) careful explanations and definitions given to teachers, both in writing and orally by principals who have been previously instructed; (4) assurances to them that some definite information of value and interest will accrue to them, and seeing to it that these are delivered by a central office, possibly by a department of educational research.

[1] B. R. Buckingham, "Efficiency Indices," *Bulletin of Extension Division, Indiana University*, No. 6, 1917, pp 107-8.

If there are available record cards containing accurate memoranda of age and terms in school, it is possible, particularly in a single school, to sort these cards into nine piles for each grade, corresponding to the age-grade-progress grouping.

PROGRESS AND AGE STUDY. Public Schools, _____ 191_

BOYS. School _____ Teacher _____ Grade IIIA

Terms in School	-Ages- 5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	Total
1															
2															
3				1	1										2
4		1	2	2	2	1									8
5		1	5	25	4	1									36
6			4	6	5	3									18
7				3	2	1									6
8															
9															
10															
11															
12															
13															
14															
15															
16															
17															
18															
19															
20															
21															
22															
23															
24															
25															
Total		2	11	37	14	6									70
Beginners				1	1										2
Repeaters			1	2	3	2									8

By beginner is meant a child for first time in any school.
By repeater is meant a child now repeating work of last term.
INSTRUCTIONS to ROOM TEACHER.

FIG. 3

In the experience of the writer in directing three censuses for cities, a fruitful blank form to be used in the gathering of age-grade-progress statistics is one developed originally by him from the diagram presented by Van Sickle, Witmer, and Ayres in 1911.[1] In its present form (with the added spaces

[1] VAN SICKLE, WITMER, and AYRES, "Provisions for Exceptional Children in Public Schools," *U.S. Education Bulletin No. 14*, 1911 (92 pp.), pp. 26–27.

for beginners and repeaters) one can obtain from it both the conventional age-grade (threefold) tables and also the better age-grade-progress (ninefold) tables. The blank as we have developed and used it is represented in Fig. 3. This figure represents the records as they would be turned in by teachers of two classes belonging to the Grade IIIA (first term). The normal age for Grade III is assumed to be eight years at the last birthday. It is supposed that some of the children in this hypothetical class entered the first grade younger than six years. The date of the taking of the statistics, say early in October or March, must be adhered to in succeeding censuses year after year if comparisons are to be made. The heavy lines are drawn in afterward at the central office (department of educational research) by a clerical assistant working under the direction of a trained official. It is evident that the nine spaces so marked off contain the nine age-grade-progress groups, since five half-year terms is the normal time in which to progress to within the third grade, and eight years is the age-grade standard in this instance. We have, therefore, the results presented in Table III.

TABLE III

	No.	Per Cent
1. Normal-age with normal progress.....	25	35
2. " " " rapid "	3	4
3. " " " slow "	9	13
4. Under-age with normal progress.....	6	8
5. " " " rapid "	3	4
6. " " " slow "	4	6
7. Over-age with normal progress.....	5	7
8. " " " rapid "	4	6
9. " " " slow "	11	16
10. Beginners.....	2	3
11. Repeaters from last term.....	8	12

In addition to the eleven kinds of facts shown in Table III, many other items may be derived from the data-blanks after

the results have been combined for each grade and division in all of the schools, and for the city as a whole. For example, continuing the enumeration, we note these further items obtainable from this blank form:

12. Position of thirteen-year-olds (i.e., Ayres's "index of efficiency").
13. Age-grade tables, for schools or city.
14. Age-grade-progress tables, for schools or city.
15. Average rates of progress through grades.
16. Total registration.
17. Registration by ages.
18. Registration by grades.
19. Basis for comparison of actual numbers of beginners with estimates as by Strayer, Thorndike, or Ayres.
20. Each of above data separately for boys and for girls.
21. If desired, the amounts of over-ageness or of slow progress can be obtained by years or terms.

It is obvious that the blank shown in Fig. 3, properly used, will reveal a score of facts of interest annually to the board, superintendents, principals, teachers, and parents. Comparisons of city with city are of little value, and are usually invalidated by different conditions. The important thing is constructive, local use of such statistics for the discovery and location of various groups of pupils demanding special or individual attention.

It is suggested that in due time the National Society for the Study of Education, or possibly the United States Bureau of Education, might undertake advisedly a thorough study of age-grade progress, now that a decade has passed since the laborious study of Strayer and many cities have installed individual record card systems. It is true, however, that this is not the time to make a national issue over a question in school statistics, for other and obvious things sorely need to be done now, in these months of reconstruction after the World War.

Educational Writings

I. EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY IN 1918

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TEXTBOOKS

Two textbooks on child psychology have appeared during the past year to challenge the position of a few texts which have held the field for over a decade.[1] Both books give evidence of a careful study of the scientific studies of the child which have appeared since the earlier texts were written. Neither of them, however, exhausts the rich material which has been gathered from the application of intelligence tests and tests in the school subjects to large numbers of school children during the past ten years. This material, of course, bears only on the intellectual side of the child's mental development, but, since our knowledge of this phase of the child's growth is now the most precise, it deserves more emphasis than it has received.

The distinctive feature of Waddle's book is its emphasis on the fundamental biological and physiological basis of the child's mental growth. For example, the author discusses heredity at some length. He does not, however, describe the periods of physical growth, which have such close relation to the periods of maturing of the instincts and intellectual functions. The book may be characterized as a discussion of fundamental principles more than of practical applications. The book by Norsworthy and Whitley, on the other hand, emphasizes the applications of psychology to the problems of management. It is more exhaustive, moreover, in the range of topics which it covers. It does not go into theory so much as does Waddle's book. Accordingly it is suitable for somewhat less mature students.

[1] Charles W. Waddle, *An Introduction to Child Psychology*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1918. Pp. 317.
Naomi Norsworthy and Mary T. Whitley, *Psychology of Childhood*. New York: Macmillan, 1918. Pp. 374.

The third text is a venture in a comparatively new field.[1] Its character and aim may be gathered from the subtitle: *A Textbook in General Philosophy and Applied Psychology for Students in High Schools, Academies, Junior Colleges, and for the General Reader.* The author, in the preface, compares his discussion to the courses in general science and combined mathematics which are being so commonly introduced into high schools. He has succeeded in producing a book in which the fundamental conceptions which have been derived from scientific research are shown in their every-day dress, and to this he has added a good deal of practical advice drawn from other sources. The book is very readable and is worth a trial in the high school.

CHILD PSYCHOLOGY AND INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

The application of a rigidly exact method of study of the child's responses, their change and development, and individual differences in fundamental learning processes is represented in the monograph by Mateer.[2] The author has experimented extensively on the responses which have recently gone by the name "conditioned reflexes." The method of studying these responses which is used by the author was originated by Russian investigators, notably Pavlov and Krasnogorski. The fundamental process which is studied is not new to psychology. It is simply the transference of a response from a stimulus which originally excited it to another which is frequently associated with the first response. For example, one responds originally to the sight of food by a secretion of saliva. After a time the dinner-bell comes also to excite the flow of saliva, although originally it had no such effect. This, of course, is a fundamental process in the development of acquired responses. Dr. Mateer studied this process in the following manner. At regular intervals she bandaged a child's eyes, and after ten seconds fed him chocolate. She then recorded the number of trials necessary before he anticipated the chocolate by swallowing or opening his mouth. In addition to the time for first learning she studied the amount that was retained the next day, the number of trials with the bandage but without feeding to unlearn the response, and the number necessary to relearn it again. The method is a promising one and shows significant differences between children of different ages and intelligence.

A conclusion opposite to that arrived at by previous investigators on the permanence of pupils' interests was come to by Willett.[3] He did not rely on the pupils' memory of their interests, but sent them the same ques-

[1] Charles Clinton Peters, *Human Conduct.* New York: Macmillan, 1918. Pp. 430.
[2] Florence Mateer, *Child Behavior.* Boston: Richard G. Badger, 1918. Pp. 239.
[3] G. W. Willett, "Permanence of Pupil Interests," *School and Society,* VII (1918), 325–30.

tionnaire two years in succession. He found that they reported the same subject as first, second, or last choice in 30 per cent or less of the cases at the end of a year.

Three studies of speech defects may be grouped together.[1] The first is a brief manual by a specialist in speech defects, written to give the school administrator and teacher a general knowledge of the kinds, nature, and treatment of speech defects and of the organization of instruction. The study by Beeley was originally planned to investigate the relation of left-handedness to speech defects, but in the present report presents only the preliminary matter of tests of diagnosis of right- and left-handedness. The article by Miss Nice summarizes a number of previous studies which indicate that there is a connection between the lack of prompt development of right-handedness, or the interference with the use of the left hand if that is the preferred hand, and speech defects. She presents a description of seven cases which seem to show relation between ambidexterity and retardation in speech development.

The five articles named in the footnote[2] deal with some phase of individual difference in intellectual ability. Kornhauser found that there is a close relation between the advancement in the school and the economic standing of pupils' parents as indicated by the possession of telephones. Paterson found that the pupils from a better neighborhood economically stood higher in a group of tests, and that school advancement corresponded well with standing in the tests. Miss Race found that a class of children selected on the basis of their superior standing in mental tests could advance at about double the ordinary rate in the school. Miss Strickland confirmed Hollingworth's finding that when tests measure maximum ability there is a closer correlation between abilities than when ability has not reached its maximum.

[1] W. B. Swift, *Speech Defects in School Children*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1918. Pp. 125.

A. L. Beeley, *An Experimental Study in Left-Handedness, with Practical Suggestions for Schoolroom Use*. (Supplementary Educational Monographs, Vol. II, No. 2.) Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1918. Pp. 74.

M. N. Nice, "Ambidexterity and Delayed Speech," *Pedagogical Seminary*, XXV (1918), 141–62.

[2] A. W. Kornhauser, "The Economic Standing of Parents and the Intelligence of Their Children," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, IX (1918), 159–64.

D. G. Paterson, "A Mental Survey of the School Population of a Kansas Town," *School and Society*, VII (1918), 84–89.

Henrietta V. Race, "A Study of a Class of Children of Superior Intelligence," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, IX (1918), 91–98.

H. A. Toops, and R. Pintner, "Mentality in Its Relation to Elimination from the School," *School and Society*, VII (1918), 507–10.

Georgina I. Strickland, "The Influence of Practice on the Correlation of Abilities," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, IX (1918), 393–99.

LEARNING

Many attempts have been made to determine the true form of the learning-curve, which records the rate of learning at successive stages. Thurstone endeavored to show from a study of a large number of curves of learning in typewriting that their form could be described in terms of a mathematical formula. A criticism of Thurstone's procedure is made by Blair,[1] on the ground that he did not properly determine the zero or beginning point of his curves, because he was not able to calculate the amount of previous practice.

A good many studies have been made in recent years on the most favorable methods or factors in learning. Three such studies[2] are here included. Pechstein, who has already challenged the traditional view that the whole method of learning is superior to the part method, properly organized, in learning the maze, here describes an experiment leading to the same conclusion with reference to learning nonsense syllables. He tries several part methods, which differ from one another in the manner in which the association between the parts is formed. He finds the best method to be one in which the parts are first learned separately and then joined by repeating them together. He does not test permanence, in which the whole method has been found most superior, nor does he as yet give results with meaningful material, which is also most favorable to the whole method, but there is sufficient evidence in to indicate the necessity of revising the current view of the general superiority of the whole method.

Fukuya has tested the advice, so commonly given by popular psychologists, that one exert himself to concentrate his attention on his task and thereby increase his efficiency. Fukuya had his subjects, who included children and adults, perform the tasks of copying, adding, and memorizing in two ways: first, as they ordinarily did, and second, with the attempt to increase voluntarily the concentration of their attention. In the main the extra effort did not increase efficiency except in the initial stages with some individuals, and some children did poorer work. Since such effort undoubtedly produces undue fatigue, its wisdom is very dubious.

[1] R. V. Blair, "Thurstone's Method of Study of the Learning Curve," *Psychological Review*, XXV (1918), 81–83.

[2] L. A. Pechstein, "Whole vs. Part Methods in Learning Nonsensical Syllables," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, IX (1918), 381–87.

S. M. Fukuya, *Experimental Study of Attention from the Standpoint of Mental Efficiency*. (Psychological Monographs, Vol. XXV, 1918.) Pp. 42.

C. T. Gray, "Comparison of Two Types of Learning by Means of Substitution Test," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, IX (1918), 143–58.

Gray used a substitution test which is constructed according to a certain system, and compared the rapidity of learning when this system was explained and when it was not. The group to whom the organization of the code was not explained did as well as or better than the other group. This seems to indicate that rationalization may not always be an economical method of learning. This conclusion is pretty well established for sensory-motor learning, and now appears to hold also for some cases of simple association-forming.

Various other problems in learning are studied in the experiments reported in the three next articles.[1] Dearborn and Brewer studied the relations of practice in four types of substitution and a number-checking test. They did not find evidence of transfer of training from one to the others, but attributed the result to a combination of facilitating and interfering factors. They found some correlation between standings at the beginning and at the end of the work. Gates had children learn sense material and nonsense syllables and found that on the whole those who could recall most immediately after learning could also recall most after three or four hours. There was a correlation between scores in the two kinds of material, and between both and the teachers' estimates of the pupils' ability. Reed had his subjects learn pairs of words and nonsense syllables. He found that those who learned quickly remembered on the whole more than those who learned slowly, confirming other studies, and explained the result, on the basis of the introspection of his subjects, as being due to the fact that both quickness of learning and retention are proportional to the extent to which associational connections are seen between the pairs. He also found that elements which had been learned in one order were learned more quickly in another order, this result being contrary to some views of transfer.

PSYCHOLOGY OF SCHOOL SUBJECTS

An analysis of the mental processes which are involved in solving original theorems in geometry, and tests to measure ability in each of these processes are described in an article by Minnick.[2] The functions which the author distinguishes are: (1) the ability to draw a figure for a theorem, (2) the ability to state the hypothesis and conclusion of a given theorem, (3) the ability to recall additional facts about a figure when one or more facts are given,

[1] W. F. Dearborn and John M. Brewer, "Methods and Results of a Class Experiment in Learning," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, IX (1918), 63–82.

Arthur I. Gates, "Correlations of Immediate and Delayed Recall," *ibid.*, 489–96.

H. B. Reed, "Associative Aids," *Psychological Review*, XXV (1918), 125–55, 257–85, 378–401.

[2] J. H. Minnick, "Certain Abilities Fundamental to the Study of Geometry," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, IX (1918), 83–90.

and (4) the ability to select from facts given those necessary for proof and to arrange them so as to lead to the conclusion. In this case the figure, hypothesis, and conclusion are given. The question to be considered in reference to such a procedure is how far the processes involved in performing these tests represent the phases of the process of actually solving an entire problem which they are supposed to measure.

The next two reports are of studies of various aspects of the psychology of reading. The monograph by Judd[1] represents an extensive laboratory investigation, supplemented by a trial upon children who exhibit special disabilities in reading, of methods of reading which have been suggested by the laboratory analysis. After a historical review of methods of teaching reading the report describes the results of a photographic analysis of the eye movements of readers of different ages and attainments. From this comparison a distinction between efficient and inefficient habits is drawn. The most important characteristic is found to be the scope of the matter which is apprehended during an eye pause. The method of training selected hard cases is next described, and finally the report closes with a general account of methods, particularly in teaching silent reading.

A special type of reading disability, inability to learn to read in children otherwise normal, is studied by Schmitt.[2] She reports the clinical examination of a number of cases of apparent inability to learn to read and of their treatment by special methods. The results of this treatment cast doubt on the view that developmental alexia is as absolute as has been supposed.

An experimental study of handwriting similar in nature to the above-mentioned experimental study of reading is reported by Freeman and his assistants.[3] In this study the laboratory study was made by means of the motion-picture method, and the application of the trial method was made first on a small group and then upon an entire school for a period of a year. The resulting recommendations concern the best type of movement, position, and drill exercise.

MENTAL TESTS

The first group of articles presents new tests or a new standardization of tests already in use. The most novel and elaborate of the new tests is one

[1] CHARLES H. JUDD, *Reading: Its Nature and Development.* (Supplementary Educational Monographs, Vol. II, No. 4.) Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1918. Pp. xiv+192.

[2] CLARA SCHMITT, "Developmental Alexia: Congenital Word-Blindness, or Inability to Learn to Read," *Elementary School Journal*, XVIII, 680–700, 757–69.

[3] FRANK N. FREEMAN, *The Handwriting Movement. A Study of the Motor Factors of Excellence in Penmanship.* (Supplementary Educational Monographs, Vol. II, No. 3.) Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1918.

for scientific thinking by Herring.[1] The author has analyzed scientific thinking into eleven processes: judgment (1) of the value of problems, (2) of the feasibility of solutions, (3) of the accuracy of definitions, (4) of the clarity of statements, (5) of the need of statistics in certain cases, (6) of the relevancy of given facts, (7) of the worth of methods of recording, (8) of the quality of comparisons, (9) of the quality of classifications, (10) of the worth of different arrangements of facts, and (11) of the sufficiency of data. Each type of judgment is tested by requiring the pupil to select the best example from a number which are presented to him. The method is ingenious, but results are not yet at hand by means of which its value may be judged.

The six articles by Terman, Brandenburg, Rosanoff, Greene, Pintner and Toops, and Porteus present either additional standardization of tests already in use, or forms of tests only slightly different from those in existence.[2]

One of the most radical undertakings in the field of tests which has been reported during the past year is the point scale organized by Otis.[3] Lack of space prevents more than a bare indication of the nature of this scale. It is designed for the upper grades of the elementary school, can be given to groups, contains very simple printed directions to be read by the children, requires brief and simple responses, and has been standardized by very careful statistical methods. It is by far the best scale for testing elementary children in groups.

The monograph by Terman and the article by Maxfield discuss technical aspects which are of value to the specialist in mental testing.[4]

[1] JOHN P. HERRING, "Measurements of Some Abilities in Scientific Thinking," *Journa of Educational Psychology*, IX (1918), 535–58.

[2] L. M. Terman, "The Vocabulary Test as a Measure of Intelligence," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, IX (1918), 452–66.

GEORGE C. BRANDENBURG, "Psychological Aspects of Language," *ibid.*, 313–32.

A. S. ROSANOFF, HELEN E. MARTIN, and ISABEL R. ROSANOFF, *A Higher Scale of Mental Measurement and Its Application to Cases of Insanity*. (Psychological Monographs, Vol. XXV, 1918.) Pp. 113.

HARRY A. GREENE, "A Standardization of Certain Opposites Tests," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, IX (1918), 559–66.

R. PINTNER and H. A. TOOPS, "A Revised Directions Test," *ibid.*, 123–42.

S. D. PORTEUS, "Measurement of Intelligence: 633 Children Examined by the Binet and Porteus Tests," *ibid.*, 13–31.

[3] A. S. OTIS, "An Absolute Point Scale for the Group Measurement of Intelligence," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, IX (1918), 239–61, 333–48.

[4] L. M. TERMAN, *The Stanford Revision and Extension of the Binet-Simon Scale for Measuring Intelligence*. Baltimore: Warwick & York, 1918. Pp. 179.

FRANCIS N. MAXFIELD, "Some Mathematical Aspects of the Binet-Simon Tests," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, IX (1918), 1–12.

Pintner[1] has presented a careful standardization, from the statistical point of view, of a number of group tests, which are intended to be used in broad surveys of the children of a community, but unfortunately the value of the tests which he has standardized is not equal to the labor which has been spent in standardizing them.

There are a number of other reports of experiments in the application of tests to various uses, but they do not throw any new light upon the problems of testing.

II. COMMENT ON CURRENT EDUCATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

A bulletin on vocational guidance.—Mr. Ryan, of the Bureau of Education, has brought together in a bulletin[2] information concerning the significant factors which have contributed to the development of the vocational guidance movement during the past ten years. He has dealt with the investigations which have demonstrated the need of vocational guidance; with the printed material covering occupations which has been prepared for the use of teachers and counselors; and has called attention to especially successful work now being done in individual school systems over the country. The bulletin also contains an annotated bibliography and exhibits of typical "job analyses."

The author has presented an abstract of the most significant literature and practice growing out of guidance work. He has followed the development of organizations and has called attention to their contributions. He has done a similar service in connection with bureau and individual experimentation. While there is little attempt at evaluation of items presented, other than that exercised through the selection of these items, there is throughout the bulletin a strong tendency to encourage guidance as a public-school rather than as a private function. There is also a tendency to encourage guidance work through the early school years, especially during the junior-high-school period.

The use of occupational data has been suggested as a basis for curricular adjustments and as basic content material in all subjects throughout the school system. This means a broadening of the school program to include a study of industrial society and calls for a teaching force that has been trained to appreciate the significance of modern social and industrial development.

[1] R. PINTNER, *The Mental Survey*. New York, 1918. Pp. 116.

[2] W. CARSON RYAN, JR. *Vocational Guidance and the Public Schools*, Bulletin No. 24. 1918, Bureau of Education, Washington, D.C.

The bulletin is of especial value to those interested in keeping in touch with the literature of vocational guidance and to those interested in experimental work being carried forward in various parts of the country. The presentation is timely because of the interest manifested in guidance development as a part of the reconstruction program.

E. T. FILBEY

A superintendent's handbook on methods of handling and reporting school statistics.—With the development of the measuring movement in education, there has been a distinct need for descriptions and methods for using and reporting statistics to the public. Superintendents have been unacquainted with these methods and have been too busy to take the time to study detailed treatises which deal with such problems. Professor Alexander's[1] new handbook therefore will be welcomed as a helpful tool of this sort. It includes a compact presentation of methods of collecting school statistics, a brief discussion of statistical methods of treating them, and a more detailed treatment of methods of presenting statistics to the public.

Three chapters are given in which the superintendent is told how to prepare frequency tables and curves, and how to compute averages, measures of deviation and of relationship. These discussions are non-technical, and should be distinctly helpful to the busy schoolman. The book offers its real contribution, however, in summarizing tabular and graphic methods which have been devised by the various workers for clear presentation of statistics to the public. There is no more important single school administrative problem than that of acquainting boards of education and the more intelligent citizenship in our communities with what is going on in our schools. This book will help the superintendent to use clear methods of summarizing and interpreting school facts.

An elementary-school inventory book.—Professors Strayer and Engelhardt have been collaborating in the publication of helpful administrative material. Superintendents will recall the publication of their school record system, of the latter's publication on school buildings, and of the work of the two men in conducting surveys of school buildings and other phases of school administration.

Included in their general scheme is an elementary-school inventory book[2] which has been "prepared with the purpose of assisting school officers in

[1] CARTER ALEXANDER, *School Statistics and Publicity*. Silver, Burdett & Co., 1919. Pp. xix+332.

[2] G. D. STRAYER and N. L. ENGELHARDT, *Elementary School Inventory Book*. Albany, N.Y.: C. F. Williams & Son, 1919. Pp. 111.

making the annual inventories of their elementary schools with a minimum expenditure of time and energy."

The material appears as a bound volume with blank sheets sufficient for the annual inventory of a single school. It is organized so that principals can make inventories without rewriting the names of articles and materials from year to year; so that insurance adjustments can be easily made in case of fire; so as to aid in replacement; so as to facilitate the keeping of a record of all materials on stock; so as to economize on clerical work, and afford a complete record for reference in the superintendent's office. The material is arranged in accordance with the organization of the building, and can be kept very easily by the principal's clerk.

A textbook for principals of elementary schools.—Dr. Perry's *Management of a City School* has just been reissued in completely revised form.[1] This book still remains practically the only systematic presentation of the problems of the school principal. There has been much scientific accumulation of material important to the principal in the past few years. Administrative problems are being analyzed by the experts. Principals need to have this material presented in compact form and interpreted so that they can make use of it in their own practice.

There are two ways of organizing such material. One would make use of scientific procedure, analyzing each problem carefully, and summarizing the evidence concerning best methods which have been developed for treating the problem. The other would be to digest one's own experience and that of his associates and present in a discursive and semi-rule-of-thumb treatment the essentials of such experience. The latter is the procedure followed by the author in revising this book. It is a summary of his experience and the experiences of his associates, together with a digest of some of the more recent developments in school administration. It is characterized by a good many general observations concerning the relation of the school to the state, the principal's general obligations, his legal status and legal obligations; the relation of the principal to parents and the general outside public; and the relation of the principal to school boards, to business executives, and to the superintendent. About half the material, therefore, has to do with *general* problems of administration. The other half relates more pertinently to the problems of instruction, directing of study, physical welfare of the pupil, record systems, promotion plans, departmental instruction, use of tests, methods of improving school records, and quite a detailed discussion of the principal and the pupils' moral development.

[1] A. C. Perry, *Management of a City School.* New York: Macmillan, 1919. Pp. viii+431. $1.80.

A school textbook on agriculture.—The purpose of this new text on agriculture[1] is "to explain to the farm boy the facts about farming that have puzzled him." It is an attempt to treat the fundamental principles of farming which are the same in all localities.

The author's seventeen years of experience in teaching science have led him to present in a simple and forceful way the essentials of farming as a basis for further study of agriculture. While reading the text one is constantly impressed by the concentrated "ready-made" information. There is little of the scientific problem-solving for the student, and in this sense the text defeats one of the most important purposes of science teaching. It is notable that six pages of "facts from other sciences" equip the student "with sufficient knowledge of chemistry to understand some of the most important processes in soil formation."

The book is divided into four parts: "The Soil," "The Plant," "The Animal," and "The Farm." The large quantity of information contained in the book should make it a valuable addition to a reference library for students of agriculture or general science. The illustrations are particularly good, many of them being taken from the files of the Department of Agriculture, in which department the author is chief of the Office of Farm Management. An excellent map of the United States showing the origin of soils in the various parts of the country and an excellent chapter on "Soil Improvement" are important additions to the literature of agriculture.

Since "many of the schools in which it is hoped this book will be used have no special laboratory equipment," experiments, requiring no apparatus and, for the most part, no materials not obtainable on the farm, are outlined at the end of each chapter. Some problems are also given.

C. J. Pieper

A book on project teaching.—This book[2] will help to clear up some of the widespread confusion with regard to what constitutes project teaching in the grades. The most valuable part of it is the opening discussion of the theory of project-problem teaching and the general methods to be employed. The main part of the book is a plea for using the objects and activities all around children as a means of education, and a statement of content and materials of a primary-grade course of study based on the belief that the purposes of the pupils ought to determine the method of procedure and the content. The plan gives to reading and number no less important a place than they

[1] W. J. Spillman, *Farm Science*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y.: World Book Co.

[2] Alice M. Krackowizer, *Projects in the Primary Grades*. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1919. Pp. vi+221.

occupy in most schools, but it provides for relating them to the other activities in a natural way. They are not to be taught incidentally, but as a means of satisfying the desire to discover and to know.

The purposeful activities which may constitute the course for the primary grades are classified as a social and nature experience, play, construction, literature, and such formal studies as reading and writing. The chapters which present in a detailed way what material may go into the course of study under these heads are somewhat disappointing. The material is not graded, and the reader is not told what prevailing interests should determine classroom procedure and choice of subject-matter at the different stages of mental development. Some of the topics as developed undoubtedly belong in the upper grades. In a number of cases the suggested procedure assumes an intellectual maturity and a type of interest that little children do not possess. In other cases, the procedure would obviously lead to idle and passive guessing rather than to purposeful thinking. The ways in which the problem-project method is to be used with this subject-matter are not sufficiently demonstrated. A question-and-answer discussion is not necessarily an activity that leads to problem-solving, although it may be an introduction to it. It is to be regretted that the author did not use more care in preparing these chapters, for they were meant to demonstrate the validity of the theory of project teaching by showing the outcome of its application to actual classroom conditions.

The large bibliography will be helpful to teachers. Very little of it is related directly to project teaching in either theory or practice, but many of the books listed will give the teacher the information she needs in preparing for such teaching in the lower grades.

HARRY O. GILLET

Educating by story-telling.—This is the second volume of the "Play School Series," edited by Clark W. Hetherington.[1] It is based in part on the work of the Demonstration Play School of the University of California.

Teachers in general do not make sufficient use of the story as a means of education. Kindergartners present an exception, and some teachers of first and second grades. The explanation is simple: most people do not know how to tell stories effectively, and such stories as are at hand seldom fit into the prescribed course of study. Miss Cather's book offers real help to meet both these difficulties.

[1] KATHERINE DUNLAP CATHER, *Educating by Story Telling.* Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y.: World Book Co., 1918. Pp. xx+396. $1.60.

After an introductory section on the ends to be reached through story-telling, the author presents in four chapters the successive story interests of children in the rhythmic, the imaginative, the heroic, and the romantic periods, and lists a large number of books of story material to be found in public libraries. The principles that should guide in building and telling the story are explained and illustrated, and a bibliography of this phase of the subject is appended. In a convincing and enlightening way the next few chapters present the kinds of material and the methods to use to foster appreciation of good literature, music, and art, to promote dramatization, and to lead to moral growth in the hearers. It is shown also how story-telling may illuminate such schoolroom subjects as history, geography, science, domestic science, and manual training. Ample lists of available material as well as now and then an illustrative story itself make the discussion of principles practical for the classroom teacher.

The author does not assume that story-telling can accomplish everything, but she does show convincingly how it can be made a powerful tool in the hands of the educator in the home and the school. The book is a contribution to the literature of the subject.

HARRY O. GILLET

A book on moral instruction.—The author holds that moral instruction should have a definite place upon the weekly school program, separate from the other studies, in both elementary and secondary schools, and that it should be credited as any other study. He also holds that the organization of the school and the experiences of the pupils should be consciously controlled with a view to moral training.

The volume[1] begins with a discussion of the kinds of experiences that should be utilized by teachers in moralizing their pupils. Among these are: the leadership and example of the teacher, the tone of the school, discipline in the school, pupil government, mutual aid given to one another by the pupils of a class, work by the pupils of a class, work by the pupils in service to the school, the many-sided social activities possible in the modern school, and finally, participation in the serious activities of the general community life. Of the pupil-activities, this last he values highest. He makes out a convincing case in its favor, but presents no program, nor does he reveal the possibilities as to program. In fact, all of these matters are but sketched in very rapid and general fashion. The intention is perspective rather than detail.

[1] FRANK CHAPMAN SHARP, *Education for Character: Moral Training in the School and Home.* Indianapolis: Bobbs Merrill Co., 1917. Pp. 453.

The major portion of the volume is devoted to *moral instruction*. After discussing the aims of such instruction, the author first considers the value for the purpose of studies in the existing curriculum. He particularly values history, literature, biography, and civics; and in the course that he draws up he makes general use of them. He makes no mention of other subjects.

Outside of the materials of the usual existing curriculum, he then presents a course in the "Systematic Study of the Conduct of Life." The purpose of this is the development, out of concrete illustrations drawn from the pupils' current experiences, observation, reading, etc., of the principles of good conduct. He presents a definite program for both elementary and secondary levels. For the former the program is arranged by grades and topics.

For each chapter there is provided a bibliography and a set of exercises for classroom discussion where the book is used as a text.

J. F. BOBBITT

III. BRIEF DESCRIPTIVE STATEMENTS OF CONTENTS OF SELECTED PUBLICATIONS

HAROLD J. SHERIDAN and G. C. WHITE. *Learning and Teaching.* Methodist Book Concern, 1918. Pp. 207. Cloth. $0.60.

This publication is one of the "Training for Leadership Series" edited by Henry H. Meyer and E. B. Chappell. It is a discussion of methods of instruction and classroom practices as applied to the needs of the church school. The goals desired through biblical instruction are enumerated, and a separate chapter is given to the discussion of each. An effort is made to correlate the work of instruction with training secured through participation, on the part of the students, in the varied activities of the church. This book is comprehensive in its treatment of the subject and should be of value to the Sunday-school teacher or to the organizer of a church school.

FRANCIS B. PIERSON. *The Reconstructed School.* Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y.: World Book Co., 1919. Pp. 117. Cloth.

This book is one of the "School Efficiency Monograph Series." It is an appeal for united effort in the work of reconstructing our schools through a better definition of aims. Subjects are to receive recognition in our curriculum in proportion to the measure in which they afford opportunity for accomplishing the ends of integrity, appreciation, aspiration, initiative, imagination, reverence, sense of responsibility, loyalty, democracy, serenity, and life. Thoroughness is the subject; arithmetic may be the means of

instruction. It is an inspirational treatment of the subject and should help direct the efforts of teachers and school administrators in the practical work of reconstruction.

IV. CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED DURING THE PAST MONTH

A. GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

ANDRESS, J. MACE. *Health Education in Rural Schools.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919. Pp. xii+321.

SHARP, H. *Progress of Education in India—1912–1917.* Calcutta, India: Superintendent of Government Printing, 1918. Pp. iv+215. Rs. 3–10 or 5*s.* 6*d.*

SPILLMAN, HARRY COLLINS. *Personality: Studies in Personal Development.* New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1919. Pp. 206. $1.50.

B. BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR ELEMENTARY-GRADE TEACHERS AND PUPILS

GATHANY, J. MADISON. *American Patriotism in Prose and Verse.* New York: Macmillan, 1919. Pp. xiv+305. $0.32.

LASELLE, MARY A. *Short Stories of the New America.* New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1919. Pp. xiv+224.

MCGLAUFLIN, IDABELLE. *Sewing Handicraft for Girls.* Peoria, Ill.: Manual Arts Press, 1918. Pp. 116. $1.35.

SMITH, LAURA ROUNTREE. *Primary Seat Work, Sense Training and Games.* Chicago: Beckley-Cardy Co., 1919. Pp. 160. $0.60.

C. BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

BAKER, GEORGE P. *Dramatic Technique.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919. Pp. vi+531. $3.00.

CRAWFORD, DOUGLAS GORDON. *The Study of English.* New York: Macmillan, 1919. Pp. xx+338. $1.20.

GARDNER, EDWARD HALL. *Constructive Dictation.* New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1919. Pp. 376. $1.00.

GEDDES, JAMES. *Hartzenbusch' Juan de Las Vinas.* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1919. Pp. xv+136.

HATHEWAY, JOEL, and BERGE-SOLER, EDUARDO. *Easy Spanish Reader.* New York: Macmillan, 1919. Pp. xiii+386. $1.10.

HOBBS, WILLIAM HERBERT. *The World War and Its Consequences.* New York: Putnam, 1919. Pp. xiv+446. $2.50.

LYNDE, CARLETON JOHN. *A Laboratory Course in Physics of the Household.* New York: Macmillan, 1919. Pp. xv+146. $0.90.

MANLY, JOHN M., and RICKERT, EDITH. *The Writing of English.* New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1919. Pp. xi+509.

OSGOOD, FREDERICK H. *La France héroïque: Episodes de la grande guerre.* Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1919. Pp. vi+174. $1.00.

PEABODY, JOSEPHINE P. *The Piper—A Play in Four Acts.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919. Pp. 212. $0.52.

PORTER, TILLA B. *Parliamentary Law Simplified.* Cleveland: Evangelical Press, 1915. Pp. 48. $0.50.

ROSENTHAL, DANIEL C., and CHANKIN, VICTOR. *Grammaire de conversation et de lecture.* New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1919. Pp. viii+423.

ROSSMAN, MARY B., and MILLS, MARY W. *Graded Sentences for Analysis.* New York: Lloyd Adams Noble, 1918. $0.40

THOMPSON, J. G., and BIGWOOD, INEZ. *Lest We Forget: World War Stories.* Silver Burdett & Co., 1918. Pp. viii+347.

VAN BUSKIRK, EDGAR F., and SMITH L. *The Science of Everyday Life.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919. Pp. xv+416. $1.40.

WALSH, GERTRUDE M. *Primer Libro de Lectura.* Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1919. Pp. xii+119. $0.52.

WALSH, JOHN H. *Business Arithmetic.* New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1919. Pp. viii+496. $1.20.

WILKINS, L. A. *First Spanish Book.* New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1919. Pp. xv+259.

D. PUBLICATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION AND SIMILAR MATERIAL IN PAMPHLET FORM

Proceedings of the High School Conference of November 21, 22, 23, 1918. Bulletin No. 12, University of Illinois. Urbana, 1919. Pp. 306.

E. MISCELLANEOUS BOOKS

LEWIS, A. M., and SINGER, EDGAR A. *The Winston Simplified Dictionary.* John C. Winston Co., 1919. Pp. xxii+820.

MOORE, FREDERICK. *The Chaos in Europe.* New York: Putnam, 1919. Pp. ix+192. $1.50.

THE HISTORY CIRCLE. *British-American Discords and Concords: A Record of Three Centuries.* New York: Putnam, 1918. Pp. viii+85. $0.75.